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1849

9/25/13

FIRST LESSONS
IN
CIVIL GOVERNMENT:

INCLUDING
A COMPREHENSIVE VIEW
OF THE
GOVERNMENT OF THE STATE OF NEW-YORK,
AND
AN ABSTRACT OF THE LAWS,

SHOWING THE RIGHTS, DUTIES, AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF CITIZENS IN THE
CIVIL AND DOMESTIC RELATIONS; WITH

AN OUTLINE OF THE
GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES:

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH,
AND
DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY ANDREW W. YOUNG,
Author of "Science of Government."

[ELEVENTH EDITION.]

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PREFACE.

To the intelligent citizens of the state of New-York, an apology for the appearance of this work will scarcely seem necessary. Notwithstanding the number and variety of class-books that have sought and gained admittance into our public schools, the study of our civil polity has not yet been encumbered with treatises on this most important science.

To secure the blessings of liberty to themselves and their posterity, was the leading object of the people of the United States in ordaining and establishing the constitution. That this constitution is fully adequate to the objects of its formation, has been satisfactorily proved by the experience of more than half a century.

Whether the blessings of civil and religious freedom, which our system of government is so happily adapted to secure, shall be enjoyed by *our* posterity, time alone can determine. Of the probability or improbability of the fact, we may, however, conjecture from what is done to qualify the rising generation of American youth for the duties and responsibilities which, as freemen, they are soon to assume.

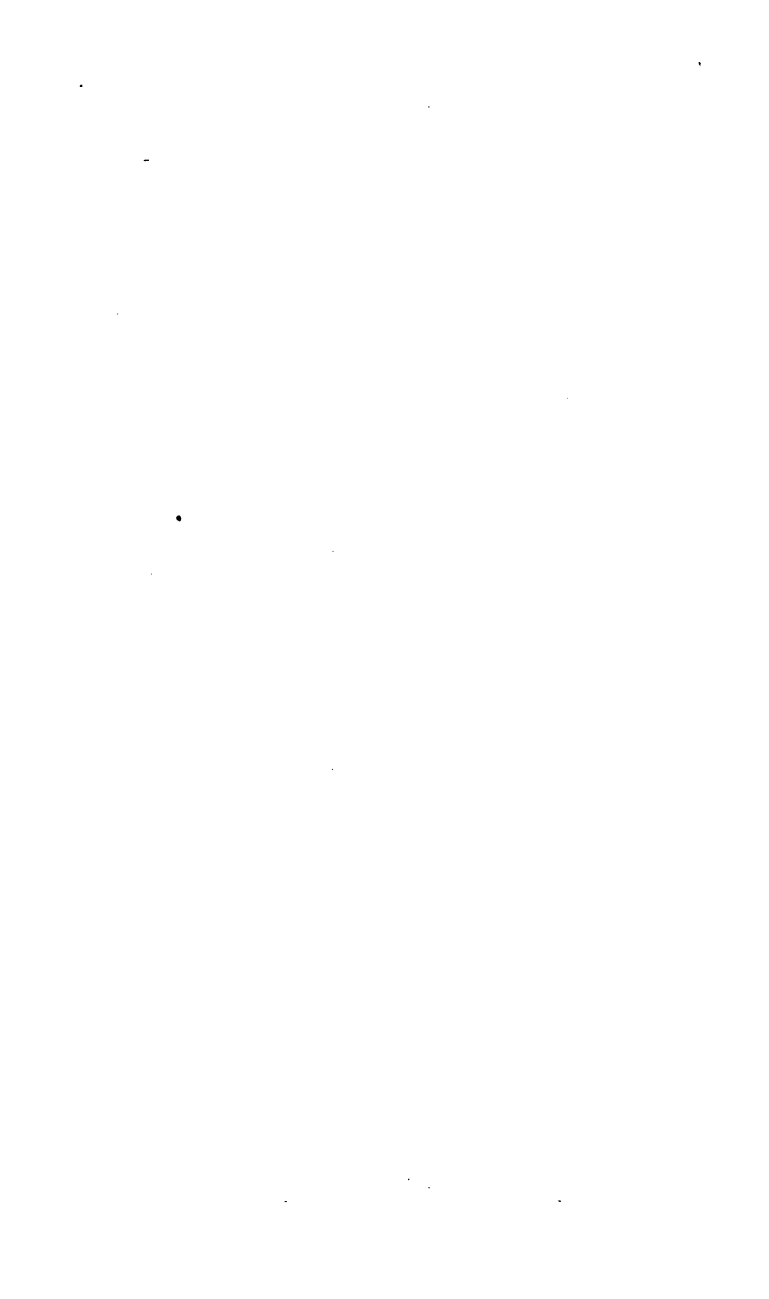
In a few years, the destinies of this great and growing republic will be committed to those who are now receiving instruction in our public schools. How important that the course of education pursued in these institutions, should include the study of the principles of republican government, and especially of that government in which they will so shortly be called to take a part.

A thorough knowledge of our constitutional and civil jurisprudence cannot well be too highly appreciated. Without it, we may hope in vain to perpetuate our free institutions. The very idea of free government presupposes a knowledge of such government. And how is it to be obtained









Notwithstanding a due familiarity of style has been attempted in this work, words and phrases have frequently become necessary, which will need some explanation to the scholar. Every scholar should be furnished with a dictionary, and be required to know the meaning of every word in the lesson.

Some of the chapters will be found too long for a single lesson. Such portions only should be assigned to the class as may be learned well. In exercising the pupil, the teacher will generally find it necessary to add questions of his own, which he may do at pleasure.

No questions have been affixed to the Declaration of Independence and the constitutions. Suitable portions of these may be given to the class, and the questions for exercise must be supplied by the teacher.

Scholars, especially those in the cities of this state, need be informed, that cities have governments peculiar to themselves, and, consequently, that much of what pertains to the government of the state of New-York, is not applicable to the city governments.

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CIVIL GOVERNMENT, &c.

CHAPTER I.

Of Civil Government and Laws ; what they are, and why they are necessary.

§ 1. GOVERNMENT, in a general sense, signifies direction, or regulation ; or it is the control which one thing has over another, in causing it to move or operate in a certain manner. When applied to persons, it means the exercise of authority by one or more persons over others.

§ 2. A parent gives directions to his children for the regulation of their behavior. He commands what they are to do, and forbids what they are not to do. In giving these rules and causing them to be obeyed, he is said *to govern* his family. So the government of a teacher consists in keeping order in his school, by causing his scholars to observe the rules he has prescribed for their conduct.

§ 3. But that kind of government which I shall endeavor to explain in this book, is the government of a state or nation, generally called *civil government*. It is so called, because it is the government which regulates the actions of persons as members of civil society. But in order fully to understand the meaning of civil government, it is necessary first to know what is meant by *civil society*.

§ 4. The Creator intended that mankind should live together. He has given them a desire to associate with each other, and made their happiness depend. in a great measure, on such association. Hence we find that persons derive enjoyment from each other's company which they could not have by living alone.

QUESTIONS. § 1. What is government in a general sense ? What when applied to persons ? § 2. Illustrate the meaning by example. § 3. What is the government of a state or nation called ? Why ? § 4. From what

§ 5. Any number of persons associated together in a manner, or for any purpose, may be called a society. Friends of temperance associate for the purpose of promoting temperance, and are called a temperance society. Other persons act together as a Bible society, or an education society. But neither of these associations, nor any others commonly called societies, are what is understood by civil society.

§ 6. The term civil society is applied to the people of a country united for the purpose of government, under written rules and regulations. But it does not apply to the people of every nation. The Indians of this country observe certain rules and customs; but as these people are savage and unlearned, they are called *uncivilized*, and are not proper civil communities.

§ 7. Civil society can be said to exist only where people are in a civilized state, or state of social improvement. By a state of civilization and social improvement is meant refinement of manners, or growth in knowledge. In any country where the people enjoy the benefits of learning and the means of improving their social condition, or making themselves more comfortable and happy, they are called *civilized*; and the authority exercised in regulating the conduct or actions of mankind in civil society, is called *civil government*.

§ 8. The rules by which the conduct of men in civil society is to be regulated, are called *laws*; as the commands of the parent or householder are the laws of the family, as the rules of the teacher are the laws of the school. A *law* is therefore a rule prescribing what men are to do, and what they are not to do. A law implies two things; first, the right and authority of those who govern to make a law; secondly, the duty of the governed to obey the law.

§ 9. To give force to a law, it must have a penalty. *Penalty* is the pain or suffering to be inflicted upon a person for breaking a law. The law requires, that for stealing, a man must pay a fine, or be put into prison, and that for murder he must be hanged: therefore fine or imprisonment is

do you infer that man is made for society? § 5. What is a society? What is civil society? § 7. Where does civil society exist? What is civilization? Is this a civilized country? § 8. What are called laws? Define law. § 9. Why have laws a penalty? What is penalty? § 10. Why

penalty for stealing, and hanging is the penalty for murder. If there were no penalties annexed to laws, men could not be compelled to obey them; bad men would commit the worst of crimes without fear, and there would be no safety or order in society.

§ 10. Civil government and laws, therefore, are necessary to preserve the peace and order of a community, and to secure to its members the free enjoyment of their rights. A *right* is the just claim or lawful title which we have to any thing. Thus we say, a person has a right to what he has earned by his labor, or bought with his money. A man is entitled to what is lawfully or justly his own; that is, he has a right to it.

§ 11. We have a right also *to do* things. We have a right to go where we please, and to act as we please, if by so doing we do not trespass upon the rights of others. This being free to act thus is called *liberty*. But it must be remembered that all men in civil society have the same natural rights, and no one has a right to disturb others in the enjoyment of their rights.

§ 12. All laws ought to be so made as to secure to men the liberty to enjoy and exercise their natural rights. *Natural rights* are those which we are entitled to by *nature*, rights with which we are born. They are called natural rights, because they are ours by birth. And because all persons in society have naturally the same rights, we have no right to what belongs to another, nor to say or do what will injure another.

§ 13. The law of nature is that rule of conduct which we are bound to observe towards our Creator and our fellow men, by reason of our natural relations to them. It is a perfect rule for all moral and social beings, right in itself, right in the nature of things; and it would be right, and ought to be obeyed, if no other law or positive command had ever been given.

§ 14. Mankind being dependent on their Creator, they owe to him duties which they ought to perform, though he had never positively enjoined them. It is right in itself that we

are necessary? What is a right? Explain the meaning. § 11. What is liberty? § 12. What are natural rights? May we do what ever we please? § 13. What is the law of nature? § 14. What reason is here given for

should love and serve our Maker, and thank him for his mercies; and it would be just as much our duty to do so, if he had never so commanded. And it is right in the nature of things that we should love our neighbor as ourselves; and our obligation to do so would be just as certain, had the duty never been enjoined by a positive precept.

§ 15. Living in society with our fellow men, on whom we are in a measure dependent, and who have the same natural rights as ourselves, we are bound by the principles of natural justice to promote their happiness, by doing to them as we would that they should do to us; that is to say, the law of nature requires us to do so. And here let it be remarked that the all-wise and kind Creator has so constituted man, that in thus promoting the happiness of his fellow men, he increases his own.

§ 16. But it may be asked, if the law of nature is the rule by which mankind ought to regulate their conduct, of what use are written laws? The will of the Creator is the law of nature which men are bound to obey. But mankind in their present imperfect state are not capable of discovering in all cases what the law of nature requires; it has therefore pleased Divine Providence to reveal his will to mankind, and to instruct them in their duties to himself and to each other. This will is revealed in the Holy Scriptures, and is called the law of revelation, or the Divine law.

§ 17. But though men have the Divine law for their guide, human laws are also necessary. God has commanded me to do that which is right, and to deal justly with each other; but men do not always agree as to what is right: human laws therefore become necessary to say what shall be considered just between man and man. And these laws must be written, that it may always be known what they are.

§ 18. Again it may be asked, what must be done when human law does not agree with the Divine law? Must such law be obeyed? Men have no right to make a law that is contrary to the law of God; and we are not bound to obey

loving our Creator and our fellow men? § 15. How must we act toward our fellow men? By what law? § 16. Do the will of God and the law of nature agree? Why then are written laws necessary? Wherein is the Divine law revealed? § 17. Why are human laws necessary? § 18. When human laws and the Divine law disagree, which must be obeyed?

it. The apostles were forbidden to preach the gospel ; but they said, " we ought to obey God rather than men ;" and they continued to preach. (Acts, Chapter 5.) But we may not disobey a human law simply because it fails to require strict justice. A law may be very imperfect, as many human laws are, and yet we may obey it without breaking the Divine law.

CHAPTER II.

How Power is exercised in different Governments.

§ 1. THE people of every country live under government and laws of some kind ; but the modes and forms of government in different countries are very different from each other. What distinguishes one form of government from another is, that the power to govern, that is, the power to make the laws and to put them in force, is in different hands, and is exercised in a different manner in some governments from what it is in others.

§ 2. In some countries the power to govern is in one person, called a king or emperor, who makes the laws for the people, who are called *subjects*, because they are subject to his will, which is their law. Such a government is called a *monarchy*, which means a government by one man, who is called *monarch*. When the ruler exercises authority over his subjects in a cruel manner, he is called a *despot* or *tyrant*, and his government is called *despotism*, or *tyranny*. Originally the words *despot* and *tyrant* meant simply a single ruler. But such is the sense at present conveyed by these words, that any government, when so administered as to oppress the people, is called *despotic* or *tyrannical*.

§ 3. Another form of government is a *democracy*, which means government by the people. In a government purely democratic, the people govern themselves. The great body of freemen meet in one assembly to make the laws and to

§ 1. Are all forms of government alike ? Wherein consists the difference ?
 § 2. Who makes the laws in a monarchy ? What is a monarchy ? When is it called a despotism, or tyranny ? § 3. What is a democracy ? How are laws

transact the public business. In ancient Greece and Rome there were some governments of this kind. This kind of government can exist only in small territories. It would be impossible for all the citizens of a large community to meet in a single assembly and do business.

§ 4. It will be seen that the two kinds of government here described, are directly opposite to each other. In the former the power is in the hands of *one* man; in the latter, the power to govern is exercised by *all* the people. In the one the people are governed by another; in the other, the people govern themselves. The former, in which the will of one man is the law, is called an *absolute* or *arbitrary* government; the latter, in which the people make their own laws, is called a *free* government.

§ 5. There is a form of government which partakes of the nature of both a monarchical and a free government, and therefore called a *mixed* government. It is also called *limited monarchy*, because the monarch is himself restrained by laws, and cannot make laws alone. The government of Great Britain is one of this description. The chief magistrate or king, gets his power as kings usually do, by right of birth; that is, he inherits it from his ancestors, in the same manner as a son becomes heir to the property of his father, at whose death the property comes to the child by right of birth. The eldest son, if there is a son, is heir to the crown.

§ 6. But the king in that country has not the power to make the laws. The laws are framed by parliament, and submitted to the king for his approval. If he approves them they become laws, otherwise they do not. Parliament is composed of two legislative assemblies, the house of *lords* and the house of *commons*. The lords are men of high rank who get their office by birth, or from the king. They are also called *nobles*. The house of commons is composed of men who are elected by the people. These three branches of the government, the king, the house of lords, and the house of commons, must all agree upon a measure before it is law.

made in a pure democracy? § 4. Contrast a monarchy and a pure democracy? § 5. What is a mixed government? How does a king get power? § 6. By whom are laws made in Great Britain? And how? How is parliament constituted? Describe the two houses. § 7. What is an aristocracy?

§ 7. Governments called *aristocracies*, have also existed; but no government properly called an aristocracy is known to exist at the present time. The word is applied to a government which is in the hands of a few persons of rank and wealth. The aristocratic principle, however, is preserved in the British house of lords.

§ 8. But the form of government which prevails in this country is different from all those which have been described. It is a republican government. A *republic* is a form of government in which the public, the people, enjoy common rights and privileges. Hence the name of *commonwealth* is sometimes applied to a republican government; as a thing is said to be *common* when it is enjoyed by persons generally, or by all. Hence also the word *community*, which signifies the people living under the same laws, and enjoying the same privileges. Every state in the union is a republic.

§ 9. In a republic the political power is with the people; and therefore the government is *free*. Hence our government is sometimes called a democracy; and perhaps the words republic and democracy had formerly the same meaning. But our government is materially different from such a democracy as has been described. In a republic like ours, the people do not all assemble in a body to make laws as in a pure democracy. The laws are made by a small number of men called representatives, who are chosen by the people for that purpose. The people also choose persons to transact the other business that needs to be done.

§ 10. Our government is therefore a representative government, or a representative republic. A *representative* is a person chosen or employed by others to make known their wishes, and to transact their business. A representative is therefore an agent. The word *agent*, however, more frequently denotes a person intrusted with the business of private individuals; by representative is generally understood one who is chosen to assist in enacting the laws. All public agents and representatives are called *officers*.

§ 11. Notwithstanding power in our government is divided

§ 8. What is the government of this country called? What is a republic? What other name is it called by? Why? § 9. In what is our government different from a simple democracy? § 10. What, then, is our government properly called? What is a representative? § 11. In what respect are

among a great many different classes of officers, instead of being exercised by the great body of the people in person, as in a simple democracy, both governments are alike in this that all power, however differently exercised, comes from the people. Both are such governments as the people choose for themselves, and therefore both are equally *free*.

§ 12. The form of government in the United States is expressed in a written instrument, called a *constitution*. A constitution is a form of rules by which the members of a society agree to be governed. Every society or association commonly so called, has a constitution. The persons forming the association draft a set of rules, stating the object of the society, what officers it shall have, what each is to do, and how its operations shall be carried on. These rules are called the constitution of the society. So the rules that are adopted by the members of the civil society, where the people are free, are called the constitution. They are in the nature of articles of agreement, by which the people mutually agree to be governed.

§ 13. A constitution is a kind of law; not, however, such a law as those which are made by the representatives of the people. It is a law made by the people themselves, directing what the government shall be, what officers are to be elected and what duties they are to perform. It prescribes also what laws may, and what may not be made: hence it is sometimes called the *fundamental law*, being the *foundation* of all other laws, which must conform to or agree with the fundamental law. It is also called a *frame* of government, and may be compared to the frame of a building. The frame gives form and shape to the building; and every additional timber and plank required to finish it, must be fitted to the frame. So every law that is made, and every act that is done by the officers of the government, must conform to the constitution.

§ 14. The constitution is also called the *political law* because it is the law of the political body, or body politic. By body politic is meant the people of the state incorporated into one body for the purpose of government. As the law

the two governments alike? § 12. What is a constitution? What does it declare? § 13. Why is a constitution called the fundamental law? To what is it compared? § 14. Why is it called the political law? What is meant by body politic? In what does a political law differ from a civil law?

of the whole people in their political capacity, the constitution is properly the political law, as distinguished from the laws made by the people's representatives, which are called the *civil or municipal laws*.

§ 15. Now it appears from what has been said, that a constitution is a law; but not every law is a constitution. A constitution is made by the act of the people, and constitutes their form of government; the laws are acts of the legislature, which are necessary in carrying on the government, and regulating the conduct of the citizens.

§ 16. It appears also, that the first and highest act of a free people, is the choice of a constitution or form of government for themselves. Hence, in no country do the people enjoy greater political privileges than in the United States. In most governments there is either no constitution at all, or none that is made by the people. In such governments the people are not free. The people of Great Britain enjoy a good degree of civil liberty, and we hear of the British constitution; but it is not a written instrument like ours, adopted by the free vote of the people. Not having such a constitution to restrain their rulers, the people are liable to suffer, and often do suffer from the enactment of unjust laws.

CHAPTER III.

How the present Form of Government came to be established in this country.

§ 1. In the two preceding chapters, I have endeavored to explain to my young fellow-citizens the principles of government in such a manner as to give them a knowledge of what civil government is, and of the nature and necessity of human laws; and I have described several of the different forms of government. In this chapter I shall show how the present

municipal law? § 15. Is every law a constitution? State again the difference between them. § 16. What is the most important act of a free people? Do the people in most governments enjoy this privilege? What is said of the people of Great Britain and the British constitution?

§ 1. What has been explained and described in the two former chapters?

form of government came to be introduced and established in this country.

§ 2. It is presumed that the youngest of my readers know that the people of the United States have not always lived under their present excellent form of government. For more than one hundred and fifty years after the first settlement of this country, they were subject to the government of Great Britain. The present year, (1843,) is the 67th since the American colonies, now states, separated themselves from the parent country, and claimed the right to establish a government for themselves.

§ 3. This country was first settled by the English, who claimed it by right of discovery, they having discovered it in 1497, about five years after Columbus had discovered the West India islands. The first permanent settlement, however, was not made until the year 1607, when a colony of 105 persons settled at Jamestown, in Virginia. A few years afterwards, (1620,) a colony was planted in Plymouth in Massachusetts. After this the number of colonies rapidly increased to twelve, the last of which, Pennsylvania, was settled in 1681. About fifty years thereafter, (1732,) Georgia was settled, the last of the thirteen which declared themselves free and independent states.

§ 4. During their connection with Great Britain, the government of the colonies was not one of their own choice, but such as the king was pleased to institute for them. Each colony had a separate and distinct government; but the governments in the different colonies were in many particulars alike. The powers of government were generally vested in a governor, a council, and an assembly of representatives chosen by the people. These three branches corresponded to the king, the nobles, and the commons, in the government of Great Britain. Power was therefore divided in those governments in nearly the same manner as it is in the state at present; for there is in every state a governor, a senate and a representative assembly.

§ 2. To what government were the people of this country formerly subject? How long? What is a colony? § 3. When did the English discover the country? When and where was the first settlement made? What is said of others? § 4. What is said about the government of the colonies while connected with Great Britain? Were they all governed alike? § 5. I

§ 5. There is, however, an important difference between these governments and the present. The people of the colonies were not allowed to choose a constitution or form of government for themselves; nor had they the privilege of choosing the officers of the different departments of the government. The governors were appointed either by the king, or by such persons as had authority from the king to appoint them; and they were generally under the control of the king, who kept them in office as long or as short a time as he pleased.

§ 6. The council was composed of a small number of men, also appointed by the king, and subject to his pleasure. This body constituted one branch of the legislature. The judges and magistrates, and other officers, were appointed by the governors, or by the king, or other persons who appointed the governors.

§ 7. Hence it appears that only one branch of the law-making power was chosen by the people, while the other two, the governor and council, were appointed by the king, or were subject to him, as were also the other officers of the government. Although one branch of the legislature was composed of men chosen by the people, the people could not always get such laws enacted as they wished; because both the governor and the council must agree to every measure which the people's representatives might propose; and then, when agreed to by them, it must be sent to England and submitted to the king, who also must give it his approval before it could be a law.

§ 8. In a few of the colonies, however, the people enjoyed greater privileges. In Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, for some years before the revolution, they elected their governors and both houses of the legislature. But even in these colonies no laws might be enacted that were contrary to the laws of England. And the privileges which they did enjoy were granted by the king, and might at any time be taken away from them at his pleasure.

What respect did those governments differ from the present? Who appointed the governors? § 6. How was the council composed? How were other officers appointed? § 7. What officers were chosen by the people? Could the people have such laws as they wished? Why not? § 8. In what colonies did the people choose their governors and legislatures? § 9. What

§ 9. Such is a brief description of the government of the colonies before they became free and independent states. There is not room in this work for a history of all the circumstances which led to their separation from the parent country, and the establishment of independent governments. The reasons for the separation are stated in the declaration of independence. It may be necessary, however, to say here, that laws were made in England which bore heavily upon the people of the colonies. The general object of these laws was to compel the colonies to sell their produce to England, and to make them buy from England the goods they wanted; and to prevent them from buying goods from other countries, they were obliged to pay duties on such articles as were brought hither from such countries.

§ 10. A *duty*, as the word is here used, is a *tax* which a person who buys an article has to pay in addition to the price of such article. I will explain the nature of these duties, and how they operated. The colonies traded with the West India islands. Some of these islands belonged to France, some to Spain, and others to Great Britain. Now to prevent the colonies from trading with the French and Spanish islands, the British parliament enacted a law compelling the colonists to pay duties on the articles they received from these islands. In order, therefore, to avoid paying this tax, they must obtain such articles from the British Islands.

§ 11. Many other laws similar to this were passed by parliament, all for the benefit of that country; and the money thus obtained, was put into their own treasury for the support of the British government. The colonists remonstrated against these unjust laws. Petitions were sent to the king, and memorials to both houses of parliament, and every argument was employed to persuade them to repeal these laws, but all to no purpose. At length the colonists resolving not to submit to such laws, and the British government being determined to enforce them, a war between the two countries was the consequence.

§ 12. The war commenced in 1775. On the 4th of July,

is the nature of the laws made in England, that led the colonies to separate from that government? § 10. What is a duty? How are the nature and operation of a duty explained? § 11. What did the colonists do to get these laws repealed? What is repeal? § 12. When was independence declared?

1776, Congress declared the colonies to be free and independent states, no longer subject to Great Britain. Congress was a kind of legislative body, composed of a few delegates or representatives from the several colonies. A description of this congress will be given in another part of this work ; also the declaration of independence, with the names of the men who signed it. After a hard struggle of about seven years, the war was ended, and Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the states. This change in our relations with that country, and the establishment of an independent government in the states, is called the *American revolution*.

§ 13. Since the states declared themselves independent, one after another has changed its government, until all of the original thirteen have adopted new constitutions, except New-Jersey, whose constitution is the same that was established the 2d of July, 1776, two days before the declaration of independence. Since the revolution, thirteen new states have been admitted into the union ; and the three territories, Florida, Iowa, and Wisconsin, will soon be added to the number.

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Government of New York.—The general Nature and the Origin of the Government of this State.

§ 1. If the scholar has attentively studied what is written in the preceding chapters on the principles of government, he will now be prepared to enter understandingly upon the study of the government of the state of New York. Every citizen of the state ought to be well acquainted with its constitution and laws, that he may know both his own rights and duties, and the rights of his fellow-citizens.

§ 2. It is necessary also for every one to understand his rights and duties as a citizen of the United States. For

By whom? How was that body composed? What is meant by the American Revolution? § 13 How many states were there at that time? How many at present?

§ 3 What is said of the two governments in this country? What is the

there is not only a government in each state, but the people of the several states are also united in *one general government*, which exercises authority, in certain matters, over all the states. The form of the general government is on the plan of the state governments, and its constitution is called the "Constitution of the United States." Sometimes this government is called the *national government*, because it extends over the whole nation; and sometimes the *federal government*, the word *federal* signifying to be united by a league or contract.

§ 3. Being citizens of both this state and the United States, a knowledge of both governments is necessary. But it is thought proper to give a more full and particular description of the state government than of the national; and it will be treated of first, as a knowledge of this will enable the young student the better to comprehend the provisions of the national constitution. And I shall begin by stating a few things of a general nature, which will apply to the government of all the states.

§ 4. In the first place, the government of the state may be considered divided into three departments; the legislative, the executive, and the judicial. The legislature is composed of two assemblies, or houses, the members of which are chosen by the people to make the laws of the state.

§ 5. The executive department consists of a governor, assisted by a great number of other officers, some of whom are elected by the people, and others are appointed in some manner prescribed by the constitution and laws. The governor, or chief magistrate, is elected by the people in all the states except three or four; in these he is chosen by the legislature. It is the business of this department to see that the laws are executed or carried into effect. The governor oversees the general business of the state, and recommends to the legislature such matters as he thinks ought to receive their attention. He also has a part in enacting the laws.

§ 6. The judicial department is composed of the different

meaning of federal? § 4. Into what departments is the state government divided? Of what is the legislature composed? How are the members chosen? And for what purpose? § 5. Of what does the executive department consist? How is the governor chosen? What is the business of this department? § 6. Of what does the judicial department consist? What is

courts of justice. All judges and justices of the peace are judicial officers. It is their business to judge of the laws, and to decide what is just and right between citizens. There are several kinds of courts in a state. Some are of a lower, and others of a higher order. The manner in which these courts are constituted is not precisely the same in all the states; but their general powers, and their manner of conducting trials, is the same.

§ 7. The history of the origin and progress of the government of New York, is briefly as follows:

The colony of New York was not settled by the English as most of the other colonies were, but by the Dutch, who commenced a settlement as early, it is said, as the year 1614. The Dutch continued to occupy it for fifty years. It was claimed, however, by the British, as a part of their territory; and in the year 1664, Charles II., king of England, granted it, together with certain other lands, to his brother the duke of York and Albany. An expedition was sent out from England, under the command of Col. Nichols, to whom the colony was surrendered by the Dutch. When the English obtained possession of the colony, the name of New Amsterdam was changed to that of New York, and fort Orange to that of Albany, in honor of the duke.

§ 8. The government was that of a governor and council, who were appointed by the duke, to whom the king gave this power of appointment. Col. Nichols was the first English governor. The colony was thus governed during the greater part of the time until the revolution; the governor and council being appointed by the proprietor or proprietors of the soil. Hence it was called a *proprietary government*, which kind of government existed in several of the colonies.

§ 9. The next year after the war commenced, and a few months before the general Congress declared the independence of the colonies, and while the government under the crown of Great Britain was in force, the people of the colony of New York established a government by congress and

the business of this department? § 7. By what people was the colony of New York settled? How long did they occupy it? By whom, and when, was it taken from the Dutch? By what names were New York and Albany first called? § 8. How were the governor and council appointed? Why was it called a proprietary government? § 9. What kind of a government

committees for the purpose of opposing the usurpation of the British parliament. But they intended that this government should expire when peace should be restored, which it was supposed would soon take place. This congress of the colony consisted of a number of representatives, called deputies, who were elected by the people in each county, and constituted the legislature. The committees consisted of a number of persons entrusted with certain matters in each county.

§ 10. Immediately after the general congress (then called the continental congress) had published their declaration of independence, that body recommended to the several state assemblies to establish such governments as should "best conduce to the happiness and safety of their constituents in particular, and America in general."

§ 11. But the assembly, that is, the congress of the colony of New York, were not certain that they had the power of instituting a new government; and, believing that it belonged to their constituents, the people, to determine this matter, they recommended to the electors to meet in the several counties, to determine by vote whether a new government should be formed, and if so, then either to authorize them, (the congress of the colony,) to institute a new government, or to choose other deputies in their stead for this purpose.

§ 12. The election was held, and deputies were appointed and authorized by the people to form a new government. A constitution was formed, which continued about forty-five years, when the present constitution was adopted.

CHAPTER V.

Of the formation of the present Constitution of New York.

§ 1. It has already been observed, that the people of the United States live under constitutions and forms of government which they have established themselves. But how this

was established about the time independence was declared? Of whom did this congress consist? § 10. After the declaration, what did the general congress recommend? § 11. What did the congress of the colony of New York then do? § 12. Was a new government formed? How long did that constitution continue?

work of the people is done may not be known by all who are just beginning to study the science of civil government. I will therefore give an example of the manner of forming and establishing a constitution, by describing the manner in which the present constitution of the state of New York was made and adopted.

§ 2. It has been remarked that all the citizens of a large community cannot meet in one assembly; and hence the necessity of choosing a small number, called representatives, to make the laws and to transact the business of the government. So the freemen of this state, as they could not all meet to frame a constitution, acted by their delegates or representatives. Delegate and representative are words of similar meaning. In this state, however, persons who are chosen to act for the people in other business than that of making laws, are generally called *delegates*, and the meeting of such persons is called *convention*.

§ 3. The convention that framed the present constitution of New York, was composed of 126 delegates. The number sent from each county was the same as the number of representatives it was entitled to in the assembly, the lower house of the legislature. The county of Genesee, for example, was entitled to three members of assembly, and it was represented in the convention by three delegates. The county of Albany, being entitled to four members of assembly, sent to the convention four delegates.

§ 4. The delegates were chosen in the same manner as representatives in the legislature and other officers are chosen. They were not elected at the time of the general election of county and state officers. The legislature passed a law in March, 1821, appointing the third Tuesday of June for the election of delegates, and the last Tuesday of August for the assembling of the convention to frame a constitution. The election was accordingly held and the delegates were chosen.

§ 5. This is the way in which public officers are elected: on the day appointed, the electors, the men who are entitled

§ 2. Did all the people meet to frame the constitution? By whom did they act? What is a delegate? What is a convention? § 3. How many delegates were sent from each county? § 4. How and when were the delegates chosen? By what authority? When did they assemble? § 5. Do

to vote, meet in the several towns throughout the state. They meet in every town, because all the electors of a whole county could not conveniently assemble in one place. And this is one reason why a state is divided into towns. The manner of voting is this : each voter has a ballot prepared, which is a small piece of paper on which are written or printed the names of the persons he wishes to have elected. The ballots, one at a time, are received from the voters by persons appointed for that purpose, and put into a box, called ballot-box. When all have voted, the ballots are counted. A statement of the number of votes given in each town for each person voted for, is sent to the office of the county clerk, where it is ascertained what persons have received the highest number of votes in all the county. Such persons are declared to be elected.

§ 6. The delegates thus elected to represent the several counties, met in convention at the city of Albany at the appointed time, and continued in session until the 10th of November, when they agreed upon the form of a constitution. But although agreed upon by the convention, it was not yet a constitution ; it remained for the people of the state to adopt it. And here observe the difference already mentioned, between a constitution, or *political law*, and the *municipal* or *civil laws*. The former must be agreed to by the people before it can go into effect ; the latter are enacted by the legislature, and do not require the assent of the people.

§ 7. The constitution as framed by the convention, was submitted to the people for consideration ; and an election was appointed on the 15th day of January, 1822, to continue three days ; at which election the people were to decide whether they would receive the constitution or not. The greatest number of votes being given in favor of it, it was declared to be adopted ; and according to its own provision, (Art. 9, § 1,) went into effect on the 1st day of January, 1823.

scribe the manner of voting at an election. To what place is the number of votes given in each town sent ? § 6. Where did the delegates meet in convention ? After a form was agreed upon, was it a constitution ? What farther was necessary ? § 7 Where was the constitution adopted by the people ? When did it go into effect ?

CHAPTER VI.

Of the Election of Officers ; and by whom they are elected.

§ 1. HAVING shown how the constitution was made and adopted, I proceed to show what the government under this constitution is, and how it is administered. The first act of political power exercised by the people is, as we have seen, the establishment of their constitution or form of government. To transact the great amount of business which is to be done in the various departments of the government, requires a great number of officers. Hence, the next act of political power to be exercised by the people, is the election of the necessary officers to administer the government.

§ 2. There is, once a year, on the first Tuesday of November, a general election throughout the state. At this election are chosen all officers that are elected by the people, other than town officers ; the latter being chosen at another time, as will be seen hereafter. What officers are elected at the general election and at the town meetings, will appear as we proceed.

§ 3. When we speak of officers being elected by *the people*, we do not mean all the people of every class ; but such only as are entitled by the constitution to vote at elections. It is not considered proper for females to take part in the government ; and boys have not sufficient knowledge and judgment. The constitution therefore allows none to vote at elections but *male citizens* of the age of twenty-one years and upwards.

§ 4. But not every male citizen of this age is qualified to vote. A person that has but just come into the state, is not supposed to be well enough acquainted with the government to take part in it ; nor would he be likely, being a stranger, to know what persons to vote for. The constitution therefore requires that a man must have resided in the state a year, and in the county six months, before he is entitled to

§ 1. What is the first act of political power ? What the next ? § 2. When is the general state election held ? What officers are *not* then chosen ? § 3. Do females vote at elections ? Do boys ? At what age do men vote ? § 4. What does the constitution require respecting a man's residence to make

vote at an election. And he must also actually reside in the town where he offers to vote.

§ 5. Under the former constitution of this state, only such as owned property, or paid rent or taxes to a certain amount, were entitled to vote. In some of the states this is still the case, but not in this state. The right of voting is sometimes called the *right of suffrage*; and where all the freemen enjoy this privilege, it is said suffrage is *universal*, and where the privilege is restricted to those who have property or who pay taxes, we say, there is a *limited* suffrage.

§ 6 But when it is said that all male *citizens* over twenty-one years of age may vote, not every *man* of that age is meant. Persons born in other countries, are called *foreigners* or *aliens*. They are not in law citizens, nor entitled to the rights of freemen. A way is provided, nowever, in which they may become citizens, after having been in this country a certain number of years. This is called becoming *naturalized*; that is, becoming entitled to all the rights and privileges of *natural* born citizens, or citizens born in this country. (See Naturalization.)

§ 7. Persons also who have been convicted of infamous crimes, are denied the privilege of voting thereafter at elections, unless they have been pardoned by the governor before the expiration of the term for which they were sentenced to be imprisoned. An "infamous crime" is declared, by the laws of New York, to be one which is punishable with death, or by imprisonment in a state prison.

§ 8. There is also a difference made by the constitution between white and colored citizens. The latter are not allowed to vote unless they possess a freehold estate; that is, an interest in lands of the value of two hundred and fifty dollars. It is thought by some to be unjust, that any class of our citizens should be subject to the laws of the state, without being permitted to vote for the men by whom the laws are made.

§ 9. All state and county officers elected by the people, enter upon the duties of their respective offices on the first

him a voter? § 5. What is said about owning property in order to be a voter? What is right of suffrage? Universal and limited suffrage? § 6. May aliens vote? Who are aliens? Can they ever become voters? § 7 Does crime hinder men's voting? What crimes? What is an infamous crime? § 8. In what cases may colored men vote? § 9. When do state and county officers go into office? When does the legislature meet?

day of January after they are elected. The legislature is required, by the constitution, to meet once a year, on the first Tuesday of January, unless a different day be appointed by law. (Con. art. 1, § 14.) No law has been made at any time, appointing a different day.

CHAPTER VII.

Of the Legislature; and how it is formed.

§ 1. THE legislative power of the state is by the constitution vested in a senate and assembly. The senate, or higher house, consists of thirty-two members, who must be freeholders. A *freeholder* is a person who is the owner of real estate, that is, property in lands, which he may transmit to his heirs. Senators are chosen for four years, in this manner: The state is divided into eight districts, called senate districts, each of which is entitled to four senators. But the thirty-two senators are not all chosen at the same time, and then four years thereafter thirty-two new ones. It is not thought best that all the senators should go out of office at once, and an entire new set come in at the same time.

§ 2. The constitution therefore provides, that only one of the four senators in each district shall go out every year. This makes it necessary to elect but one in each district every year, and leaves at all times twenty-four old members in the senate, unless a vacancy happens in some other way. It was necessary, however, at the first election under the constitution, to choose the whole number.

§ 3. But as one in each district must go out every year, the thirty-two first chosen could not all hold their offices the full term of four years; and in order to make room for eight new senators (one in each district) to come in at the end of the first and every succeeding year, one fourth of the whole number must serve but one year, another fourth two years,

§ 1. What two bodies constitute the legislature? How many members has the senate? What must they be? What is a freeholder? For how long, and how, are senators elected? § 2. How many are regularly chosen every year? § 3. Tell how the arrangement was first made for having but

and another three years. The remaining fourth only would serve a whole term of four years. By turning to the constitution, (Art. 1, § 5,) it may be seen how it was determined which of the senators should hold for one year, and which for two, three, and four years.

§ 4. It often happens that some senators resign their offices, and sometimes they die before the term expires for which they were elected. In such cases it becomes necessary to choose two or more in a district; one to fill the regular vacancy caused by the expiration of the term of service of one senator, and one or more to supply the places of those whose seats have become vacant by death or by resignation. But which of the persons so elected shall fill the regular vacancy for four years, and which of them shall serve only for the unexpired term of those who have died or resigned, must be stated on the ballots at the time of voting.

§ 5. The assembly consists of one hundred and twenty-eight members, all to be chosen every year. They are apportioned among the several counties, as nearly as may be, according to the number of inhabitants in each. For example, the state contained in 1835, when the last state census was taken, about 2,000,000 of inhabitants entitled to be represented, or between 15,000 and 16,000 to every member of assembly. The county of Cayuga, having upwards of 48,000 such inhabitants, is entitled to three members. The city and county of New-York, having about one tenth of all the representative population of the state, is entitled to thirteen members. Yates with about 20,000 inhabitants, has but one member.

§ 6. But it happens sometimes that the population increases more rapidly in one county than in another: the representation then becomes unequal or disproportionate. Suppose two counties to contain so nearly an equal number of inhabitants as to entitle each to two members; and suppose also that a few years hence the population in one shall have doubled, while in the other shall have been no increase. The representation then becomes disproportionate; the former having

one senator in each district elected every year. § 4. In what cases must more than one be elected? How is it determined which shall hold four years? § 5. How many members of assembly? For what term chosen? How apportioned among the counties? § 6. What sometimes makes the

only the same number of representatives, while the latter has but half as many inhabitants.

§ 7. It is provided, therefore, by the constitution, that at the end of every ten years an enumeration of the inhabitants shall be taken, and a new apportionment of members made, according to such enumeration or numbering, so that each county may have a just proportion or share of the representatives in the assembly. And if the senate districts become unequal in their population, they also must be so altered as to give to each, as nearly as may be, an equal number of inhabitants.

§ 8. The first division of the state into senate districts, was made by the constitution itself. (Art. 1, § 5.) But as two alterations have been made since the constitution went into effect, the districts are very different from what they were at the time of their first formation. And after 1845, in which year another enumeration will be taken, another alteration of senate districts will become necessary.

CHAPTER VIII.

Organization of the Legislature ; Privileges of Members ; Appointment of its officers, &c.

§ 1. THE legislature, composed of the senate and assembly, meets, as required by the constitution, on the first Tuesday of January in every year, for the purpose of considering the condition of the state, and of enacting such laws, as may be necessary to promote the welfare of the people. The place of meeting is the city of Albany, which is therefore called the *capital* of the state. A large and commodious building has there been erected for the legislature to meet in, which is called the *capitol*.

§ 2. The two houses having assembled, each in its own chamber, every member of assembly, and every new senator,

representation of counties unequal? Explain this. § 7. How often, and how is this inequality removed? § 8. What is said about the senate districts in this section?

§ 1. When and where does the legislature meet? § 2. What is required

is required, before proceeding to business, to take the oath of office, by which he solemnly swears, that he will support the constitution of the United States, and the constitution of the state of New-York; and that he will faithfully discharge the duties of his office according to the best of his ability.

§ 3. All persons elected to important public offices are required to take such oath. (Cons. Art. 6.) An oath is a solemn declaration, in which the person appeals to God to bear witness to the truth of what he declares. Oaths are required, because it is presumed that a person will feel a stronger obligation to do right when under oath than he otherwise would do. And yet it is to be deeply regretted that many public officers, even under the obligation of an oath, discharge their duties very unfaithfully. It is important, therefore, that the people choose good men for office, who will be sure to act honestly.

§ 4. As it would be improper that a small number of the members should make laws, the constitution provides that a majority of the members of each house shall constitute a quorum to do business. *Quorum* means such number of any body of officers as may transact business. As majority means more than one half, any number of members more than one half may act. While a very small number ought not to constitute a quorum, it would be equally improper to require all, or nearly all, the members to be present in order to do business, as it often happens that a considerable number of them are necessarily absent.

§ 5. Every legislative body must have some rules and order of doing business. The constitution allows each house to determine the rules of its own proceedings; but that the public may know what business is done, each house is required to keep a journal of its proceedings, and to publish the same, except such parts as ought to be kept secret. And that any person wishing, may witness its proceedings, the doors of each house must be kept open, except when the public welfare requires secrecy.

§ 6. In order to prevent any injury or interruption to the public business, it has been provided by law of the legislature,

of members before proceeding to business? § 3. What is an oath? Why is it required? § 4. How many members constitute a quorum? What is quorum? § 5. How are the people informed what business is done? § 6

that members may not be arrested on civil process, that is, they may not be prosecuted in suits at law, during their attendance at the meeting of the legislature, except for certain wrong acts or misdemeanors committed by them. And they enjoy this privilege also for fourteen days previous to such meeting, and fourteen days thereafter, that they may have time to go to and to return from each meeting or session of the legislature, without hinderance.

§ 7. The law also provides that each house may expel any of its members; and punish its members and officers for disorderly behavior, by imprisonment. And each house may also punish other persons as well as its members, for contempt or insult offered to the house; for disorderly conduct tending to interrupt its proceedings; for publishing false and malicious reports of the proceedings, or of the conduct of members; and for sundry other offences.

§ 8. After the members are sworn into office, the next thing to be done is to appoint the officers of the house. Each house must have a presiding officer, or chairman. In the senate the lieutenant governor acts as such, and is called *president of the senate*. This body, however, chooses one of its own number to preside when the lieutenant governor shall not attend. The assembly chooses one of its members to preside over the house, who is called the *speaker of the assembly*.

§ 9. It is the business of a presiding officer to keep order in the house, and to see that its business is done according to the rules of the house. And when a question is to be decided, he "puts it to vote;" that is, he requests the members to express their minds by "*aye*" and "*no*," in favor of or against any measure; and declares the question to be carried or lost, as the case may be. This part of a speaker's business is much the same as that of the chairman or president of the meeting of a society, or of a district school meeting. Probably most boys of the age of ten years have seen how business is conducted in such meetings.

§ 10. Each house also chooses a *clerk*, to keep the record

What privileges do members enjoy? § 7. What power has each house to prevent disorderly behavior? § 8. Who presides in the senate? Who in the assembly? How is he chosen? § 9. What is the business of a presiding officer? § 10. What other officers are chosen? State the duties of

or journal of its proceedings, and to do such other things as are usually done by the secretary of a meeting ; a *sergeant-at-arms*, whose duty it is to arrest members or other persons who are guilty of disorderly conduct, to compel the attendance of absent members, and to do other business of a like nature ; also a *door-keeper*, and one or more *assistant door-keepers*. The officers mentioned in this section are not selected from the members of the house, but from the citizens at large.

§ 11. It is usual also for legislative bodies to choose some clergyman as *chaplain*, who offers prayer at the opening of each day's session, and performs such other religious services as occasion may require. It has been the practice of the legislature of this state, to invite all the clergymen of the city of Albany to officiate by turn in this capacity.

§ 12. Each house also chooses a *printer*, who prints a certain number of copies (at present 250) of every bill, report, memorial, or other document ordered by either house to be printed. He prints also for distribution a certain number of copies of the journals kept by the clerk of the house for which he is printer. A printer to the legislature must be some other person than the printer to the state. Contracts for the price of legislative printing are made by the president of the senate, the speaker of the assembly and the comptroller.

CHAPTER IX.

How the laws are enacted ; the compensation of Members, &c.

§ 1. AFTER the two houses have appointed their officers, each house sends a committee of two of its members to inform the governor that the legislature is ready to do business, and to receive any communication which he has to make. Whereupon the governor sends, by his private secretary, to both houses a *message*, which is read to each house by its clerk. The governor exhibits in his message, the condition

each. § 11. What is the duty of a chaplain ? § 12. What is the business of a printer to the legislature ?

§ 1. How is the governor informed that the legislature is ready to do business ?

of the affairs of the state, and calls the attention of the legislature to such subjects as he thinks ought to be acted on.

§ 2. Soon after the legislature has commenced its business, the committees of each house are appointed. A *committee* consists of one or more persons appointed or chosen to consider and to act upon any matter intrusted to them. A legislative committee generally consists of either three, five, or seven members. The committees are numerous, and are usually appointed by the presiding officer of each house; sometimes, however, by the house itself. There is a committee on agriculture; another on banks; another on railroads and canals; another on the division of towns and counties; another on colleges, academies and common schools; and a committee on almost every other subject of a general nature.

§ 3. The object of appointing these committees is to save the time of the house, and to hasten the transaction of business. To show the utility of committees, suppose that the people from different parts of the state apply to the legislature to enact laws authorizing the making of canals, the incorporation of banks, and the division of counties; for these things cannot be done unless authorized by law. It would be unwise for a legislature to pass laws simply because they were asked for; for although some persons might be benefited by such laws, many more might be injured by them. The objects desired must therefore be inquired into, to ascertain whether they are necessary or not.

§ 4. Now if there were no committees to which these several subjects might be referred, the time of the whole house must be spent upon each object of inquiry. And as hundreds of things are asked for at every session of the legislature, there would not be time enough in the whole year to dispose of them. But now every subject is referred to its appropriate committee. Petitions for canals are referred to the committee on canals; those for banks, to the committee on banks; and those for new counties, to the committee on the division of towns and counties; and so of every other

now? What then does he do? What does the message contain? § 2. What is a committee? Of what number does it consist? § 3. Why are legislative committees appointed? Explain the utility of committees. § 4. How are petitions referred? What are petitions? What is a standing commit-

petition. If any subject arises for which there is no appropriate *standing* committee, there is one appointed for a special purpose of considering such subject, and is called *select* committee.

§ 5. The members of each committee meet from time to time at some place during hours when the house is in session, to consider the subjects referred to them. To hear what is to be said in favor of the desired objects, those who have come to urge the passage of the laws ask for, and also what is to be said on the other side by those who have come to oppose such measures. And frequently it is necessary for the committee to write to persons in distant parts of the state for further information.

§ 6. After due inquiry and consideration, committees make their reports to the house. A report of a committee contains a statement of the facts that have been ascertained and of the reasons why the law prayed for ought or ought not to be passed. If a committee reports against a measure the house generally dismisses the subject: if the committee reports in favor of such measure, it usually brings in a bill with the report. A *bill* is a draft or form of an intended law. Bills, however, are not always reported by committees. An individual member of the house may introduce a bill, by leave of the house, if he shall have given at least one day's notice beforehand of his intention to introduce.

§ 7. A bill, after it is brought before the house, must pass through many different stages and forms of action, all of which it is not deemed important to mention in this place. Before it is passed, it must be read three times; but not often more than once on the same day without the consent of the whole house. Nor can it be altered or amended before its second reading. After it has been twice read, and fully discussed and amended, it is proposed to read it on a given day a third time.

§ 8. When the vote of the house is to be taken upon a bill, the speaker or chairman puts the question, "Shall the bill pass?" If a majority of the members present vote

yes? A select committee? § 5. State the labors of a committee. When and what do committees report to the house? What is a bill? How are all bills reported by committees? § 7. How often must a bill be read before it is passed? § 8. By whom is the question put to the house? What is

negative, the bill is passed ; but if a majority vote is negative, the bill is lost. If the yeas and nays happen equal, there is said to be a *tie* ; in which case the governor decides the question by his vote, which is called *casting vote*. If he is in favor of the bill, it is carried ; if not, it is lost.

When a bill has passed one house, it is sent to the other, where it is to be acted on in the same manner ; and if it is rejected or amended by that house, it is in either case sent back to the house from which it was received. Some bills pass several times from one house to the other, with amendments, before they are agreed to by both. If both do not agree to a bill, it is lost.

When a bill has passed both houses, it is sent to the governor to be approved and signed by him. If he signs it, it becomes a law ; if not, it is no law. This power of the governor to *negative* a bill, that is, to prevent its becoming a law, by withholding from it his signature, is called *veto*, which is a Latin word signifying *I forbid*.

Hence it appears, that if no laws could be enacted without the consent of the governor, we should not be in a better condition than the people of the colonies were subject to Great Britain, or than the people are in a monarchy, where one man makes the laws ; for the governor might prevent the passage of every law that did not please him.

But the people have by their constitution provided for the enactment of laws without the governor's assent. If the governor refuses to sign a bill, he must return it to the house in which it originated, stating his objections to it. The house then proceeds to reconsider the bill ; and if after having reconsidered it, *two-thirds* of the members present agree to pass it, it is sent, with the governor's objections, to the governor ; and if two-thirds of the members of that house agree to pass the bill, it becomes a law without the governor's name. Or if the governor should not return a bill within ten days after it is presented to him, it would be

and negative ? A tie ? How is it decided ? § 9. After a bill has passed both houses, what ? When agreed to or amended by the other, what ? When agreed to by both houses, is it a law ? Who must sign it ? § 10. *Veto* ? § 12. How may a bill become a law without the governor's

a law, though not signed by him, and without being acted upon by the legislature.

§ 13. It may be asked, why send a bill to the governor? Why not let the legislature alone enact the laws? In reply it may be asked, why does a legislature consist of branches? Why may not a single body of representatives make the laws as well as two? The reason is this: one house may pass a bill without discovering all its imperfections, and the people would be very likely to get many laws; but if the bill has to be examined in another branch, any mistake or oversight committed by the first house may be detected in the second, where the bill may be either amended or wholly rejected.

§ 14. But it may, and sometimes does happen, that errors are committed by both houses. In order therefore to guard still more effectually against the enactment of bad laws, it was provided that the governor also shall examine and approve a bill. But that it may not depend on one person what laws we shall have, or whether we shall have any laws at all, the governor is required to return to the legislature all bills which he does not approve, that they may be passed, if they can be, in the manner stated, by two-thirds of both houses.

§ 15. Members of the legislature are paid for their services three dollars a day; and they are allowed three dollars for every twenty miles of the distance they travel from their homes to the place of meeting, to be computed both going to, and returning from the same. The clerk of the senate receives a yearly salary of \$1200, and the clerk of the assembly, \$1800; from which each provides his own assistants and clerks. The sergeant-at-arms and door-keeper of each house, and the assistant door-keeper of the assembly, receive, for each day's attendance, the same compensation as members of the legislature.

§ 16. The clerks of the senate and assembly provide furniture for the senate and assembly chambers, stations

approval? § 13. Why is the legislature divided into two branches? § 14. Why are bills submitted to the governor for his approval? § 15. How much do members of the legislature receive for their services? How much do the clerks of both houses? The sergeant-at-arms, and door-keepers?

fire-wood, and other articles, for the use of the legislature, the expenses of which are paid out of the treasury.

CHAPTER X.

Of the Executive Department, and of the general Administration of the Government of the State.—Governor and Lieutenant-Governor.

§ 1. Having treated of the legislative department, and shown how its officers are elected, and how their power is exercised in making the laws; I shall proceed to give a description of the executive department, of the election and appointment of its officers, and of their powers and duties in executing the laws and administering the government of the state.

§ 2. By the constitution, the executive power is vested in a governor. He is assisted by numerous subordinate executive officers. The governor and lieutenant-governor are elected at the annual election in November, and hold their offices for the term of two years. A person, to be qualified for the office of governor, must be a native citizen of the United States, a freholder, thirty years of age; and he must have been a resident of the state five years.

§ 3. The governor has many powers to exercise, and many important duties to perform. A few of those mentioned in the constitution are the following: He sends to the legislature at the beginning of every session, a message, containing a statement of the general affairs of the state, and recommending such measures as he shall judge to be expedient. It is his duty also to see that the laws are executed, and to transact all necessary business with the officers of government.

§ 4. The governor has power to grant reprieves and pardons. If a person has been found guilty of murder, or of

§ 1. What is the business of the executive department? § 2. In whom is the executive power vested? When, and for what term are the governor and lieutenant-governor elected? State the qualifications of governor. § 3. What are some of his duties? § 4. Who grants reprieves and pardons?

any other crime for which he has been sentenced to death, the governor may, if he should think proper to do put off the execution of the sentence to a later time than day appointed. This is called granting a *reprieve*. If should entirely free him from punishment it would be giving a *pardon*. The governor has power to pardon for all fences except treason and cases of impeachment. may however put off or suspend the execution of the sentence for treason, until the case shall be reported to the legislature at its next session. The legislature may then pardon criminal or direct him to be executed, or grant a farther reprieve.

(For a definition of these offences, see Treason and Impeachment.)

§ 5. The governor has also power, with the consent of senate, to appoint the higher militia officers, and a great number of civil officers in the executive and judicial departments of the government, as will be seen hereafter. In making such appointments, the governor nominates, that is, he names in writing, the persons he wishes to have appointed, and sends the same to the senate. If a majority of the senators present consent to the appointment of the persons so nominated they are appointed.

§ 6. The duties of the lieutenant-governor are not very numerous. He is president of the senate, as has been stated in a preceding chapter, but he has only a casting vote therein. The principal reason why the constitution provides for the election of a lieutenant-governor, probably is, that there may be a suitable person to fill the office of governor, in case the governor should be removed from office, or his office should otherwise become vacant.

§ 7. When the lieutenant-governor acts as governor, the senate chooses from its number a president. And if the offices of both governor and lieutenant-governor should become vacant, the president of the senate must act as governor.

What is it to reprieve? To pardon? In what cases has he power to grant reprieves and pardons? § 5. What is said of his power of appointment? How are appointments made by the governor and senate? § 6. What are the duties of the lieutenant-governor? Why is this office necessary? How are the offices of governor and lieutenant-governor supplied when

§ 8. The lieutenant-governor is by the constitution a member of the court for the trial of impeachments and the correction of errors. A few duties are devolved upon the lieutenant-governor by law, in addition to his constitutional duties, which have been mentioned.

§ 9. The salary of the governor is established by law, at \$4000 a year; that of his private secretary is \$600. The lieutenant-governor receives six dollars a day for his attendance as president of the senate, or of the court for the trial of impeachments and correction of errors; or as commissioner of the land-office or canal fund. He is also allowed six dollars for every twenty miles which he shall travel in going to and returning from the place of meeting in the discharge of these duties. But if he performs the duties of such commissioner during the time that he attends the sessions of the senate or of the court for the trial of impeachments and the correction of errors, he is not allowed pay for his services as commissioner.

CHAPTER XI.

Of the Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, Attorney-General, Surveyor-General, and State Printer.

§ 1. The principal executive officers who assist in the administration of the government, are the secretary of state, the comptroller, the treasurer, the attorney-general, and the surveyor-general. These officers are all appointed by the legislature; and all hold their offices for three years, except the treasurer, who is appointed every year. (Cons. Art. 3, § 3.) They have power to appoint their own deputies and assistants.

§ 2. The *secretary of state* has the care of all the books, records, deeds to the state, parchments, maps, and papers which are to be kept in his office. He has a great many

§ 9. What is the governor's salary? Of his private secretary? Is the compensation of the lieutenant-governor?

Name the principal executive officers. How, and for what term are they elected? § 2. Of what has the secretary of state the care? § 3. Why

duties to perform, which cannot here be enumerated; some of which we shall have occasion to notice in connection with other subjects, in subsequent chapters.

§ 3. An important duty of the secretary of state is that he takes in publishing the laws. For if it is necessary to make laws, it is equally necessary that the people know what the laws are. When a law goes into effect, every body is bound to obey it; and he must suffer the consequences of breaking it, whether he knows what it is or not. The legislature has therefore made provision for publishing the laws that are enacted.

§ 4. It is the business of the secretary of state to cause the laws to be published. He receives all bills that become laws, and causes them to be published in the state paper, which is printed by the state printer in the city of Albany. Immediately after the close of each session of the legislature, he must also cause all the laws passed during the session to be printed and bound together in a volume, and distributed. A copy is sent to each county clerk, and one to each town clerk, in the state, to be kept in their offices for the use of the people who wish to examine the laws.

§ 5. The state officers also are to be supplied with the laws. The clerk of the senate receives eight copies for the use of the senate; the clerk of the assembly, twenty copies for the use of the assembly; and each of the higher state officers and judges receives a copy; and a copy is put in the state library. As it is desirable to know what the laws of other states are, three copies of our laws are every year sent by the secretary, under the direction of the governor, to the governor of every state in the union, and the same number of copies of the laws of each other state are requested to be sent to this state, one copy of which is put in the state library, one in the senate chamber, and one in the assembly chamber.

§ 6. Four copies of the laws are also sent to the secretary of state of the United States. And when the laws of our

are laws published? § 4. Who causes the laws to be published? How are they first published? To what officers are they sent when become laws? § 5. How many copies has each house, state officers and judges? How many are sent to each state? What is done with those received in exchange? § 6. To whom are the laws of congress sent? By whom? To whom?

session of congress are received, the secretary of state causes them to be distributed throughout the state in the same manner as the laws of this state are to be distributed. The journals or records of the proceedings of the legislature, as kept by the clerk of each house, are also bound in volumes which the secretary distributes among the members of the legislature and other state officers entitled to receive them; and a copy to each county clerk, to be kept in his office.

§ 7. Besides these and many other duties performed by the secretary of state, he performs also the duties of superintendent of common schools. For his services in both offices he receives a salary of \$2,500. He has a deputy, who may perform the ordinary duties of the secretary. The deputy secretary serves also as clerk of the commissioners of the land-office. He receives \$1,000 a year for his services.

§ 8. The *comptroller* manages the fiscal concerns of the state, that is, the business relating to the money, property, and debts of the state. He exhibits to the legislature, at its annual meeting, a statement of the funds of the state, of its revenue or income during the preceding year, and of what money has been paid out, and for what purposes. He also states, as nearly as he can estimate, how much money it will be necessary to expend the ensuing year, and specifies each object for which it is to be expended, and particularly what objects are to be provided for by law; for no money may be paid out of the treasury for any purpose but such as the laws specify.

§ 9. The comptroller also mentions plans for improving and managing the public revenues; keeps and settles the accounts of the state; superintends the collection of all monies due to the state. When money is to be paid out of the treasury, he draws a warrant on the treasurer for the money; and without his warrant, (which is a written order,) no money may be drawn from the treasury: and he may, when necessary, borrow money to pay the debts of the state.

What journals of the legislature sent? § 7. The duties of what other office does the secretary perform? What is his salary? That of his deputy? § 9. What business is managed by the comptroller? What does he exhibit to the legislature? § 9. what does he do respecting the accounts, money, and debts of the state? § 10. What are kept in his office? What

§ 10. He also keeps in his office the bonds, mortgages and other securities for money due the state; and all papers relating to the canals, and to the duties of the officers who manage the business of the canals. He is assisted by a deputy comptroller, and a second deputy-comptroller. The salary of the comptroller is \$2,500; that of each deputy \$1,500. He is also allowed what is actually necessary for clerk hire, but cannot have more than \$6,000 for that purpose.

§ 11. The *treasurer* receives all monies paid into the treasury of the state, and pays them out on the warrants of the comptroller. He deposits the money that comes into his hands, within three days after receiving it, in such bank in the city of Albany as he and the comptroller consider proper, and as shall pay the highest rate of interest for the use of the state. He exhibits annually to the legislature a statement of monies received and paid out by him during the preceding year, and of the balance in the treasury.

§ 12. As large sums of money come into the hands of the treasurer, which he might refuse to pay over when called for, or which might be lost through his carelessness, he is required, before he enters on the duties of his office, to give a bond in the sum of \$50,000, with at least four sufficient sureties, that he will faithfully perform the duties of his office. The sureties are persons who are supposed to be able to pay this sum, and who bind themselves to pay to the state whatever the treasurer shall fail to pay, but not more than the sum mentioned. Public officers generally, who have the care of money, are required to give bonds of this kind.

§ 13. The treasurer appoints a deputy, for whose conduct the treasurer is responsible. The salary of the treasurer is \$1,500; of the treasurer's clerk, \$800; and for necessary additional clerk hire, the treasurer is allowed not to exceed \$250.

§ 14. *Attorney-general*. An attorney is one who manages for another his matters in law, and is commonly called a *lawyer*. The attorney-general is a person learned in

is his salary? The salaries of his deputies? § 11. What are the duties of the treasurer? § 12. What is said of his giving a bond? § 13. What is his salary? That of his clerk? § 14. What is the business of the attorney-general?

law, who is appointed to manage and conduct the suits at law in which the state is interested. When it is necessary to prosecute persons indebted to the state, it is done by him; and he also causes to be brought to trial persons charged with certain offences. His salary is \$1,000; and he is allowed besides, for necessary clerk hire, not more than \$600.

§ 15. The *surveyor-general* superintends the surveying and selling of lands belonging to the state, in the manner required by law, or according to the directions of the commissioners of the land-office. He keeps in his office a map of the state; and he is required, from time to time, to delineate the bounds of all the towns or counties formed or altered by the legislature; and when the bounds of a town are so described that he cannot delineate them on the map of the state; or when there is a dispute between the people of two towns, respecting their bounds, the surveyor-general may order a special survey to be made, to ascertain the bounds of such towns, and to settle such disputes. He accounts to the comptroller for moneys received by him, in behalf of the state, or from the treasury. Salary, \$800; extra allowance for clerk hire, not exceeding \$550.

§ 16. The secretary of state employs a printer to print the laws distributed by him, which printer must be some person other than the state printer, or printer to the legislature. The other executive officers also employ their own printer or printers, other than printer to the state or printers to the legislature.

§ 17. The state printer is appointed by the legislature for three years. He must be the printer of a newspaper in the city of Albany, which must be published as often, at least, as once a week, and which is called the *state paper*. In this paper he must forthwith publish every certified copy of a law delivered to him by the secretary of state for that purpose.

§ 18. When persons intend to apply to the legislature

general? His salary? § 15. State the principal duties of the surveyor-general. His salary. § 16. who employs a printer or printers for the executive officers? § 17. By whom is the state printer appointed? For what term? In what does he publish the laws? § 18. What notices must be published in the state paper?

for a law to divide a county, or to incorporate a city, village or an association; or to lay a tax to make or improve a road or build a bridge, or for any other purpose, in any county where all or any of the inhabitants are to be taxed; the persons so intending, must give notice of their intention to apply for the passage of such law, by advertisement, to be published in the state paper at least six weeks before making the application, and also in a paper printed in the county where the object to be applied for is to be carried into effect. Several other kinds of notices are published in the state paper.

CHAPTER XII.

Of the Funds, Revenue, and other property of the State; and of the general management of them.—General Fund; Canal Fund, and Canals.

§ 1. A fund is a sum of money used in carrying on business of any kind. The money or capital stock which a merchant employs in trade, is a fund. So the money which is raised to pay the officers of the government, and to carry on the business of the state, and such other property as is set apart for this purpose, are called the funds of the state and the interest of these funds, and all other income to the state, are called the *revenue*. The state has provided fund for several purposes. One of these funds is called the general fund. There are also a canal fund, a literature fund and a common school fund.

§ 2. The *general fund* consists of stock, debts, and other property of the state, together with the revenue and increase thereof; all moneys paid into the treasury for duties on hawkers and peddlers; and the fees of office received by the secretary of state, comptroller and surveyor-general. These officers are paid fixed salaries out of the general fund and the fees they receive go into this fund and make a part of it. There is this difference between a salary and fees

§ 1. What is a fund? What are called the funds of the state? The revenue? § 2. Of what consists the general fund? What is a salary?

A *salary* is a fixed sum to be paid to a person for his services by the year; a *fee* is the sum received for each separate act of service. Thus, a justice charges nine cents for issuing a summons; for an execution, nineteen cents; for administering an oath to a witness, six cents: and what he receives for these several items of service, is called fees.

§ 3. The fees of the secretary of state consist of what is paid him for recording, for copies of records, for searching records, for giving licenses to pedlars, for certificates, for affixing the seal of office to certain written instruments, and for many other things. The comptroller's fees are received for deeds of lands sold for taxes, for copies of papers, engrossing and other services similar to those performed by the secretary of state. The surveyor-general has fees for filing papers, for drafts, searches, copies of maps and surveys.

§ 4. This part of the business of these officers is done for individuals, who pay the officers the fees established by law, and the officers pay the same to the general fund of the state, and then draw out of the treasury again the amount of their salaries. Out of the general fund of the state are paid the salaries and compensation of the legislative, executive, and the principal judicial officers, employed in the several departments of the government.

§ 5. The *canal fund* consists of lands granted for the construction of the canals, and of debts due for such portions of these lands as have been sold; the tolls received from the canals; duties on the manufacture of salt; duties on goods sold at auction; money received for the use of the surplus waters of any canal, and for penalties and damages under the canal laws.

§ 6. The canals are made by the state, and are the property of the state. When a canal is to be made, instead of taxing the people for the money to make it, the state borrows the money for a long term of years, depending on the tolls to be collected on the canal after it shall have been finished, for the repayment of the money. The Erie canal was commenced in 1817. The convention that formed the constitu-

see! § 3. For what does the secretary of state receive fees? The comptroller? The surveyor-general? § 4. What is done with their fees? How are they paid? Who else is paid out of this fund? § 5. Of what consists the canal fund? § 6. Whose property are the canals? How is the treasury

tion in 1821, thought it advisable to provide a permanent fund to carry on and complete this great work, and to repay its cost; and provision for this object was accordingly made. (See Cons. art. 7, § 10.)

§ 7. The canal fund is managed by officers called *commissioners of the canal fund*, who are the lieutenant-governor, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, the surveyor-general, the comptroller, and the treasurer. But the care and disposal of the lands belonging to the canal fund, are vested in the commissioners of the land-office.

§ 8. It is the duty of the commissioners of the canal fund to manage all things belonging to that fund to the best advantage; and to report to the legislature, at the opening of every session, the state of the fund, which report shall exhibit a statement of the funds intrusted to their care and management the preceding year. They must also lay before the legislature a full statement of all the tolls collected upon the canals during the preceding season of navigation, and of the rates of toll on all articles transported on the canals.

§ 9. The general care and superintendence of the canals is intrusted to a board of officers, five or six in number, called *canal commissioners*, who are appointed by the legislature, and hold their offices during the pleasure of the legislature. These commissioners designate of their number, not exceeding three, to be *acting commissioners*, each of whom must give a bond in the sum of \$20,000, with sureties, for the faithful discharge of their duties and for the faithful accounting of all moneys intrusted to them.

§ 10. It is the duty of the canal commissioners to see that the canals are kept in repair and supplied with water; to keep in repair toll-houses, weighing-scales, and other things purchased or built for the use of the canals; and to make rules and regulations concerning matters in general relating to the navigation of the canals. And when a law is made authorizing the construction of a new canal, it is the duty of the commissioners to make such canal; and to

obtained to make canals? How is it repaid? How and when was a canal fund permanently provided? § 7. By what officers is this fund managed? § 8. Mention the duties of these officers. § 9. Who have the general care and management of the canals? How are they appointed? What is said of *acting commissioners*? § 10. What are the duties of the commissioners?

employ agents, engineers, surveyors and such other persons as are wanted to assist them in the work.

§ 11. There is another board of canal officers, called the *canal board*. This board consists of both the canal commissioners and commissioners of the canal fund united. This board appoints the superintendents of repairs and the collectors of tolls, fixes the rates of tolls, and prescribes the rules and regulations for their collection.

§ 12. The canal tolls are the taxes paid by the master or owner of a boat, for the use of the canal in transporting goods and other property. The amount of toll paid is rated according to the weight of the goods carried. In order to ascertain how much toll is to be paid, the loading of a boat must be weighed, and the toll is paid on such loading, by the ton. The tolls are received by the collectors, of whom there is one in each of the principal villages on the canal, and at whose offices the commanders of boats passing these offices must stop and pay the tolls, which are rated and charged by the mile, for the distance they are to be carried.

§ 13. All money expended in making, repairing, or improving the canals, and in paying the officers and agents employed on the canals, is paid from the canal fund. The acting canal commissioners receive salaries of \$1500 each. The other commissioners receive at the same rate for the time they are employed. The compensation of superintendents, and others, employed on the canals, is fixed by the canal board or by those who appoint or employ them.

CHAPTER XIII.

Common School Fund, and Literature Fund, and their management.

§ 1. No people can be prosperous and happy without learning. In some countries, such as Turkey and some

§ 11. How is the canal board constituted? What are its duties? § 12. What are the canal tolls? How are they rated? By whom received? § 13. For what purposes are canal moneys paid out? What are the salaries of canal commissioners, superintendents, &c.?

§ 1. What is here said to be the advantage of education? § 2. Why ought

others, the people are degraded and miserable. This is owing to their ignorance. They are governed by a despot, who rules over them with great rigor; and they scarcely know that they could be in a better condition. Indeed, for the want of education, they could not, if they were to try, govern themselves as the people of this country do. It is only where the great body of the citizens are well educated that a free government can be maintained.

§ 2. Hence, in order to continue free and prosperous, the American people must be educated. But all have not the means of obtaining a good education. There are among us some persons who are too poor to pay for the instruction of their children; and the rich are unwilling to assist them without some law to compel them. It must therefore be the duty of the government to provide the ways and means for the support of public schools, in which the children of our country may all be educated.

§ 3. In the state of New York, provision has been made for this purpose. A fund was created, many years ago, called the *common school fund*, for the support of common schools. These schools are properly so called, both because they are of a lower order than academies and colleges, and because the benefits of them may be enjoyed by all the people *in common*. And as the state is divided into small districts of territory, each containing about as many inhabitants as can conveniently support a school, they are also called *district schools*.

§ 4. When the present constitution was formed, provision was made for enlarging the school fund, by adding to it the proceeds of certain lands belonging to the state. (Con. art. 7, § 10.) Still farther addition has since been made to this fund, the interest or income of which is every year distributed among all the school districts, to be applied towards the payment of the wages of teachers.

§ 5. The highest common school officer is the *superintendent of common schools*. This office is connected with that of secretary of state. (See chap. 11, § 7.) The superinten-

the government to provide for educating the people? § 3. For the support of what schools is the school fund provided? Why are they called common schools? District schools? § 4. When was this fund enlarged? § 5. Who is the highest common school officer? Who is he? By whom is the school

dent distributes the school money among the several counties of the state, apportioning it according to the number of inhabitants in each county. The money for each county is received by the county treasurer, and by him apportioned to the several towns of the county.

§ 6. The superintendent also gives instructions for the government of the schools, and reports to the legislature every year, a statement of the condition of the common schools, plans for improving and managing the common school fund, and such other matters as he shall think necessary. And he has power also to settle disputes, and remedy grievances, and other matters arising in school districts, which, when they cannot be settled or decided in the districts, are to be referred to the county superintendent; and if his decision is not satisfactory, they are referred to the state superintendent.

§ 7. Besides the income of the common school fund provided in the manner stated, still farther provision has been made for the support of common schools. The law requires that in every town as much money shall be raised for this object, as the town receives from the state. The amount so to be raised is added to and collected with the sum yearly raised in each town for the town and county expenses. And if a majority of the inhabitants of any town, at their annual town meeting shall so vote, a still farther sum, equal to that so to be raised in such town, may be added to the amount to be collected with the annual tax for town and county charges.

§ 8. Now as taxes are assessed upon the inhabitants in proportion to the value of the property of each, it will be seen how the rich are made to contribute to the education of the poor. They have, however, no reason to complain. By the general education of the people, the prosperity and happiness of the whole community are promoted; and the rich share in the common benefit. Besides, the more ignorant a community is, the more vicious it will become, and the more crimes will be committed; and as the expense of

money distributed? § 6. Mention the duties of the superintendent.
§ 7. What farther means are provided for the support of common schools?

the trial of all criminals is a public charge, the taxes on property are very little, if at all, increased by what is raised for purposes of education.

§ 9. The powers and duties of common school officers in the several counties and towns, and the manner of collecting and distributing the school moneys, will be stated in those chapters in which the duties of town and county officer generally are described.

§ 10. There is another school fund, called the *literature fund*. This fund has been provided for the assistance and benefit of academies, and other incorporated seminaries of learning. Both the fund and the schools are under the care and management of a board of officers, called, the *regents of the University of the state of New York*.

§ 11. The board of regents consists of twenty-two persons, three of whom are the governor, lieutenant-governor and secretary of state; the others are all appointed by the legislature. The officers of the board are, a chancellor, a vice-chancellor, a treasurer, and a secretary, all chosen by the board. They meet every year at the capitol in the city of Albany, on the evening of the 2nd Tuesday of January. Eight regents attending have power to do business.

§ 12. The regents, by themselves or committees, visit and inspect all the colleges and academies in the state, and examine into their condition and management, and make an annual report of the same to the legislature.

§ 13. The regents annually divide the income of the literature fund into eight equal parts, one part to be assigned to each of the eight senate districts, and distributed among the incorporated seminaries of learning except colleges, in proportion to the number of pupils in each seminary, who have for four months during the preceding year pursued classical studies or the higher branches of English education or both.

§ 14. Of the income of the literature fund, \$12,000 are annually distributed in this manner. To this sum there was

§ 10. To what is the literature fund applied? In whose care is it? § 11. How many members does the board of regents consist? How are they appointed? What are their officers? § 12. What are the duties of the regents? § 13. How do they distribute the money to the academies? § 14. How much money is annually distributed by them? § 15. How

added a few years ago, a part (\$28,000) of the income of certain moneys belonging to the United States, deposited with this state, the interest of which is every year appropriated to purposes of education. The whole amount, therefore, now distributed among the seminaries in the several senate districts, is \$40,000 a year, or \$5,000 among such schools in each district.

§ 15. Of the interest of this money of the United States, which this state has at present the use of, the greater part is appropriated to the support of common schools. The sum of \$165,000 is thus applied every year. Of this sum, \$55,000 a year was for three years applied to the purchase of the district libraries, which are intended to furnish both children and parents with useful books.

§ 16. Thus we see how effectually and how wisely the government has provided for the education of the people. The poorest child need not remain ignorant. If all the youth of our country would improve the means they have of becoming well educated, and make a good use of their learning, how greatly would the condition of society be improved, and how much more liberally would the people share in the blessings of a republican government!

CHAPTER XIV.

Of the Public Lands, Buildings, &c.; and of the Salt Springs.

§ 1. It is presumed that few of even the youngest readers need be told, that when we speak of the lands of the state, we do not mean the land owned by each and every individual citizen. The state has no better right to such land than one man has to the land of another. The public lands consist of such tracts and parcels of land as have in various ways come into the possession of the state, and are owned by the state in its corporate capacity; as the canals, state buildings, and other things, made or purchased with the

much of the income of the United States deposit fund is at present annually distributed among the common school districts?

§ 1 Of what do the public lands consist? § 2 under whose care are

money of the state, are called the property of the state; or as the court-house, clerk's office, and jail, are the property of the county, because they are built with the money of the people of the county, to be used for public purposes.

§ 2. The lands of the state are under the care and superintendence of a board of commissioners, called *commissioners of the land office*. This board is composed of the lieutenant-governor, the speaker of the assembly, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, the surveyor-general, the comptroller, and the treasurer; all of whom except the speaker of the assembly are, by right of office, commissioners of the canal fund.

§ 3. The commissioners of the land-office direct the granting of the unappropriated lands of the state; and they direct the surveyor-general, as often as shall be necessary, to cause actual surveys to be made of such lands. The deputy secretary of state is clerk to the commissioners, and records their proceedings in a book, which is kept in the office of the secretary of state.

§ 4. The *public buildings* in the city of Albany, are the *capitol*, in which the legislature meets, and in which is also the executive chamber, where the governor attends to the duties of his office; and the *state hall*, in which are kept the offices of the secretary of state, the comptroller, and other state officers.

§ 5. The custody and care of the capitol is vested in the *trustees of the capitol*, who are the governor and lieutenant-governor, the speaker of the assembly, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, and the comptroller, and who have power to cause it to be kept in repair, and to appoint a superintendent of the capitol, who is to reside therein. The trustees may also lease such rooms in the capitol as are not occupied by the legislature and courts authorized to be held there.

§ 6. The persons mentioned as trustees of the capitol, together with the surveyor-general, are *trustees of the state hall*; the care of which is vested in the comptroller, secretary of state, and surveyor-general; and the comptroller is authorized to cause it to be kept in repair.

they? Who are these commissioners? § 3. What are their duties? Who is their clerk? § 4. What public buildings are in the city of Albany? § 5. In whose care is the capitol? What are their duties? § 6. Who are

§ 7. There are several *arsenals* in the state which are public property. An arsenal is a building in which are kept cannon, muskets, powder, balls and other warlike stores; all of which are to be kept in repair, and ready for use in case they should be wanted for war. The arsenals and magazines, together with the articles deposited in them, are under the care of the *commissary-general*, who from the nature of his duties is properly a militia officer. He also furnishes the officers of the militia, such articles as they are entitled to receive for the use of their companies. His salary is \$700 a year.

§ 8. The prisons erected at Mount-Pleasant and Auburn, and the lands and buildings connected with them, are the property of the state, and are under the care of officers appointed for the purpose.

§ 9. The *state library* consists of books containing matter of a public nature; such as the laws of the state, enacted from year to year, the laws of the United States, and the laws of the several states, together with all public documents, and such works generally as the members of the legislature and other officers of the government have occasion to examine, and as it is important to preserve for future use.

§ 10. The trustees of the state library are the governor, the lieutenant-governor, the secretary of state, and the comptroller. The library room is in the capitol. The library is kept by a librarian, who is appointed by the trustees. His salary is \$700.

§ 11. *Salt Springs*. Among the most important items of property owned by the state, are the salt springs. The principal of these springs are in the town of Salina, in the county of Onondaga, and are generally called the Onondaga salt springs.

§ 12. The care and superintendence of these springs is vested in the superintendent of the Onondaga salt springs, and the inspector of salt in the county of Onondaga. The superintendent must give a bond in the sum of \$30,000,

trustees of the state-hall? Who have the particular care of it? § 7. What are the duties of the commissary-general? What is an arsenal? § 8. What property has the state at Auburn and Mount-Pleasant? § 9. Of what consists the state library? § 10. In whose care is it? § 11. Where are the principal salt springs belonging to the state? § 12. Under whose manage-

with five sufficient sureties, that he will faithfully perform the duties of his office; the bond to be filed in the office of the comptroller. He has a number of deputies to assist him. The inspector gives a bond in the sum of \$2,000, for the same purpose, also to be filed in the comptroller's office. He also has deputies.

§ 13. The superintendent has possession of all the lands, buildings, timber, pumps, and other machinery; and all water-courses, wells, springs, and all other property of the people of this state, within the town of Salina; has the charge and management of them, under such rules, orders, and regulations as are made by the legislature from time to time; and leases the buildings and lots to those wishing to manufacture salt. He also transmits to the comptroller a statement quarterly, of the quantity of salt daily inspected; and monthly a statement of the amount of duties accrued and collected; and he performs many other duties.

§ 14. The superintendent has a salary of \$1,500 a year; his two principal deputies, one at Syracuse and another at Salina, \$800 each; and two other deputies, one at Liverpool and Geddes, each, \$400.

§ 15. The inspector or his deputies must carefully examine and inspect all the salt manufactories, and all the salt manufactured in them; and if he finds it to be dry and clean, he marks on the barrel his name as inspector, and the number of pounds of salt which the barrel contains. This is done that persons buying the salt may know that the salt has been inspected, and is of a good quality.

§ 16. Every person applying for the inspection of salt, must pay, at the superintendent's office in the village where the salt is inspected, a duty of six cents on every bushel of fifty-six pounds weight, which is, by the constitution, to go into the canal fund.

§ 17. The inspector is allowed a salary of \$1,500 a year; his principal deputy at Syracuse, and another at Salina, receive \$700 each; and those at Liverpool and Geddes,

ment are they? What bonds are required of them? § 13. What is the business of the superintendent? § 14. What are the salaries of the superintendent and his deputies? § 15. What are the inspector's duties? Why is salt inspected? § 16. To whom are the duties paid? How much is the duty? § 17. What are the salaries of the inspector and his deputies?

\$550 each; to be paid to them monthly by the superintendent, from money in his hands belonging to the state. Assistant deputy inspectors may, when necessary, be employed at \$30 a month.

§ 18. There are also salt springs at Montezuma in the county of Cayuga, under the management of a superintendent. The salt works at this place are not extensive, and yield but a small revenue to the state.

CHAPTER XV.

Of the Militia of the State.

§ 1. In order to defend a country against attacks by foreign enemies, and to put down insurrections and rebellion against the government by its own citizens, it is the practice of governments to keep the country prepared for an event of this kind in case it should happen. For this purpose, men are required every year to meet on certain days for instruction and practice in the art of war. This is usually called *training*.

§ 2. By the laws of this state, all able bodied, free, white, male citizens, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, residing in the state, are liable to do military duty, except the following: The lieutenant-governor; members of the legislature during the term for which they are elected, and the officers of the legislature during its meeting, and for fourteen days before and after each meeting; the secretary of state, comptroller, attorney-general, treasurer, and surveyor-general, and their deputies and clerks; all judges of courts and their clerks, surrogates and sheriffs; ministers of the gospel, and teachers actually employed in colleges, academies, and common schools. And those who have been duly equipped, and have served fifteen years in a uniform company; and those also who have served four years as com-

§ 18. What is said of other salt springs?

§ 1. For what purpose are military trainings? § 2. What persons generally are liable to do military duty? Who are exempt by the laws of this

missioned officers in the militia of this or any other state, are thereafter exempt from military duty.

§ 3. Besides these, there are persons exempted by the laws of the United States. They are the vice-president and all executive and judicial officers of the government of the United States; members of congress and its officers; custom-house officers and their clerks; post-officers and drivers of mail stages; ferry-men employed at ferries on post roads; pilots and mariners.

§ 4. It will be seen that the president of the United States, and the governor of the state, are not mentioned among the persons who are free from military duty. By the constitution of the United States, the president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States; and of the whole militia of the several states also, when called out into actual service; and so also the governor is the commander-in-chief of the militia of the state. (See Cons. U. S. art. 2, § 2; and Cons. N. Y. art. 3, § 4.)

§ 5. Persons who refuse to appear at military parades after having been duly warned, are afterwards tried by a military court called court martial, to consist of three military officers; and if upon trial such persons cannot show that they were necessarily absent, they are fined in such sum as the law prescribes. And they are also liable to fine if they attend, but are not equipped as the law requires. For the trial of high militia officers, courts consist of more than three members.

§ 6. The highest militia officer is the *adjutant-general* of the state; who keeps a roster (list) of all the officers in the state above the rank of captain, containing the date of their commissions, their rank, the corps they belong to, the division, brigade, and regiment, and the places of their residence. He also enters in a book, a description of the several regiments, brigades, and divisions of infantry, artillery and riflemen; and performs sundry other duties. The adjutant general is appointed by the governor. His salary is \$1000.

state? § 3. Who are exempt by the laws of the United States? § 4. Who are not the governor and the president free also? § 5. What is done to persons who refuse to train when warned, or are not equipped? What are the duties of the adjutant-general? How is he appointed? Salary? § 6.

§ 7. There are persons who cannot conscientiously do military duty, believing it to be wrong ever to go to war. Now as it is the object of our constitution to secure to every person the liberty of conscience as well as any other kind of liberty, the constitution provides that those who cannot in conscience bear arms, may be excused by paying money. (Cons. art. 7, § 5.) The sum they must pay, has been fixed by the legislature at four dollars a year.

§ 8. There are many rules and regulations for organizing and disciplining the militia, which cannot be given in so small a book. Most of those who read it, however, will in a few years learn these things by personal observation and experience. But it is to be hoped they will never have occasion to learn practically what war is; for whether it is in itself right or wrong, it is a dreadful evil which it is ever desirable to avoid. How much better it would be, if nations should settle their disputes in a peaceable manner, as individuals do! If the love of military honor were less encouraged, and the principles of peace duly inculcated, the time would be hastened when "nations shall learn war no more."

CHAPTER XVI.

Of Towns and their Incorporation; and of Town Meetings.

§ 1. The necessity of dividing a state into towns and counties, has already been shown in part. This necessity will be made still farther to appear. There are sundry regulations necessary to be made in the towns, which the people can better make for themselves than can be done by the legislature. In so doing, they act in the capacity of a simple democracy, which, as has been stated, is a government in which all the citizens meet in one body to do business.

§ 2. A town is a body corporate, or body politic. A *body politic*, or *corporation*, is a number of persons united, and authorized by law to act under one name, and as a single

What provision is made concerning persons who think it wrong to go to war? Is war desirable? What are the evils of war?

§ 1. What reason is here mentioned for dividing a state into towns? § 2.

person, in the transaction of business. So the people of a state or nation, united for the purpose of government, are called a body politic. Persons associated for any purpose, without being incorporated by law, are not called a corporation. The object of incorporating an association by law is to give its members the power to make certain rules for the government, and to enforce these rules; and the power to sue and be sued, and to hold and sell property, as one person.

§ 3. Men often unite their money or capital in trade, in carrying on some other business, in company. This is called a partnership. A corporation is a kind of partnership; but it is very different from a common business partnership. Persons united in trade, can bind none by their contracts but those who have consented to go into the partnership: and when they die the partnership must end. Not so with a corporation. When the persons who first composed the corporation are all dead, the corporation is still alive; for those who come after them have all the powers and privileges which those had who first associated.

§ 4. There is another difference: No person can be brought into a partnership without his consent; whereas a law incorporating a city or village, brings all the inhabitants within its bounds into the corporation, often against the consent of many. Not so, however, with railroads, banking, and certain other corporations.

§ 5. To illustrate the effect of an act of incorporation, let us suppose that it should be necessary to improve the side walks in an unincorporated village; but a part of the inhabitants are unwilling to pay their share of the expense of the improvement. There is now no authority to compel them to do so. Those, therefore, who wish for the power to make such improvement, and all other necessary regulations for the government of the village, petition the legislature for an act of incorporation for that purpose. Such an act authorizes the inhabitants of the village to pass all laws (ordinances they are generally called) which they may deem necessary, and to appoint officers to carry them into effect. And in the name of the trustees or other prop-

What is a town? Define body politic, or corporation. § 3. Contrast a corporation and partnership. § 4. State farther the difference. § 5. Illustrate

they may sue and be sued, hold and sell property, her things which an individual person may do. When the present inhabitants shall have passed off, they shall then occupy their places, will constitute the corporation.

The people of this state are united in one great cor-

This corporation, however, is not formed by an legislature, but by the act of the people in making constitution, or political law of the state.

A town, as a body corporate, may sue and be sued ; and hold land and other property for the use of its citizens ; and make orders for the regulation and use of state property. The electors of a town have power, at annual town meeting, to direct money to be raised for certain purposes ; to establish the compensation of, certain officers ; to make regulations as to fences ; to direct what shall be raised in the town for the support of common schools ; and to perform sundry other acts that relate to internal affairs : and they have power at such meeting to elect such town officers as are to be chosen.

Town meetings are required by law to be held on a certain day between the first Tuesday in February and the first Tuesday in May. They must be held in all the towns of each county on the same day ; but they are not to be held on the same day in all the counties. The officers to be chosen at town meetings, and their powers and duties, will be the subject of the next three chapters.

CHAPTER XVII.

Officers, and their Powers and Duties.—Supervisor ; Clerk ; Commissioners of Highways ; Overseers of the Poor ; Overseers of the Poor.

The officers to be elected at town meetings ; are, a supervisor ; a town clerk ; so many justices of the peace as

are required by a supposed case. § 6. Is the state incorporated by act of legislature ? How then ? § 7. What corporate powers has a town ? What powers have the electors ? § 8. When are town meetings held ? What officers are elected at town-meetings ? § 9. What are the

the town is entitled to elect ; assessors, not less than three nor more than five ; a collector ; two overseers of the poor one town superintendent of common schools ; constables, not more than five ; two inspectors of election for each election district in the town ; a sealer of weights and measures as many overseers of highways as there are road districts in the town ; and so many pound-masters as the electors may determine. All the town officers must be elected by ballot except the sealer, overseers of highways and pound-masters who may be chosen either by ballot, by ayes and noes, or by the rising and dividing of the electors, as the meeting may determine. All officers voted for by ballot, must be named in the same ballot.

§ 2. The *supervisor* receives and pays over all money raised in the town for defraying town charges, except those raised for the support of highways and bridges, of common schools, and of the poor, where poor moneys are to be raised. He prosecutes, in the name of the town or otherwise, as may be necessary, for all penalties or fines of fifty dollars or under, which are forfeited to the town, and for which no other officer is directed to prosecute. He also keeps an account of all the money received and expended by him ; and accounts annually to the board of auditors of town accounts for the money so received and expended.

§ 3. The supervisor attends the annual meeting of the board of supervisors of the county, and every adjourned or special meeting. Persons having accounts against the town present them to the supervisor, who lays them before the board of supervisors. The town clerk also hands to him a statement of what money has been voted to be raised for the support of roads and bridges, and of common schools, and for other purposes, which also is to be laid by him before the board.

§ 4. The *town clerk* keeps the records, books and papers of the town, and files all papers required to be filed in his office ; and records in the town book the minutes of the doings or proceedings of every town meeting. He delivers to the supervisor copies of all entries of votes for raising money

duties of a supervisor ? § 3. What are his duties as a member of the board of supervisors ? § 4. State some of the duties of a town clerk. § 5. How

in the town; and after each town meeting he sends to the clerk of the county the names of all the constables elected in the town.

§ 5. There are in every town four *justices of the peace*, who are elected for four years, one of them only going out of office every year by the regular expiration of his term. Only one therefore is to be annually elected, except when the offices of one or more of the others shall have become vacant by death, removal, or otherwise: in such case, so many additional justices must be chosen to fill such vacancies. A description of the powers and duties of justices will be given elsewhere. (See Justices' Courts.) The *assessors and collector* are officers whose business it is to assess and collect the taxes. (See Chapter 21.)

§ 6. The *commissioners of highways* have the care and superintendence of the roads and bridges in the town. It is their duty to give directions for repairing the roads and bridges; to lay out such new roads as they may deem necessary, and to alter or discontinue old ones. But they may not discontinue old roads, nor lay out new roads through inclosed or cultivated land, without consent of the owner, unless certified to be necessary by the oath of twelve freeholders of the town.

§ 7. The commissioners divide the town into as many road districts as they may judge convenient, and require the overseers to warn the persons in their districts to work on the highways the number of days they have been assessed by the commissioners; they cause mile-boards or mile-stones to be put up, one mile apart, on post roads and such others as they think proper, and guide-posts where such roads intersect each other.

§ 8. It is the duty of the commissioners to estimate and assess the highway labor to be performed in the ensuing year. The number of days' work to be assessed in each town, must be at least three times the number of taxable inhabitants therein. Every male inhabitant above twenty-

many justices of the peace are in each town? How long do they serve? How many are annually chosen? § 6. What are the general duties of the commissioners of highways? What restriction upon their power is here mentioned? § 7. Into what do they divide the town? What other duties do they perform? § 8. Who assesses highway labor? How do they

one year, except ministers, paupers and idiots, must be assessed at least one day ; and the remainder of the work to be apportioned among these who own or occupy land or other property in the town, in proportion to the value of the property owned or occupied by each ; the value to be ascertained from the last assessment roll.

§ 9. The *overseers of highways*, sometimes called *poor masters*, are generally chosen otherwise than by ballot. It is the duty of each overseer to repair and keep in order the roads in his district, and to see that all persons assessed on them work on them ; to collect all fines and commutation money ; and to execute all orders of the commissioners.

§ 10. The overseer must give at least twenty-four hours notice to persons, of the time and place when and where they are to labor, and with what implements ; and those who are assessed at least three days' work, and who have a team and a wagon or plough, may be required to furnish the horse for which, with a man to manage them, three days shall be allowed for each day's labor thus performed.

§ 11. Any person who does not choose to work out his assessment, or furnish a substitute, may commute for the whole or any part of it ; that is, he may pay to the overseer the value of his labor in money, which is fixed by law at sixty-two and a half cents a day ; but the money must be paid within twenty-four hours after receiving notice to work. If a person refuses to work, and does not commute by paying the value of his labor in money, as required, he forfeits a dollar for every day's refusal or neglect.

§ 12. For necessary improvements on roads and bridges in any town, a sum to be estimated by the commissioners but not exceeding \$250, may be raised ; the amount to be added, by the board of supervisors, to the other charges of such town, and to be collected in the same manner. If the electors so determine, at any annual town meeting an additional sum, not exceeding \$250, may be raised for the same purposes.

estimate the number of days to be worked in town ? Then how do you apportion the labor ? § 9. How are overseers of highways chosen ? What are their general duties ? § 10. How does he warn men to work ? § 11. How may persons avoid working ? What is commute ? What if he refuses to work and to commute ? § 12. How much money may be raised in a

3. *Overseers of the poor.* It is the duty of a government to provide for the support of persons who, through fortune, have been reduced to a state of poverty, and who are unable to support themselves. Such provision has been made in this country, and to such extent, that no person is obliged to beg for the means of support; and consequently the people of this country are but little troubled, and seldom oppressed upon, by vicious persons who go about begging from the honest and industrious citizens.

4. It is the duty of the overseers of the poor, of whom there are two in each town, when applied to for the relief of the indigent persons, to provide for their support. Formerly the poor were supported in the towns in which they belonged. But more lately the paupers of the several towns are removed to the poor house, in such counties as have a poor house, where they are supported at the expense of the county.

5. But not every person who is unable to maintain himself is supported at the public expense. If the poor man has a father, the father must support him: if he has a mother, or if the father is not able, then his children must support him; and if there are no children, or none who are able, then the mother. If neither of such relatives is able, to support the poor person, he may be compelled to pay a part of the expense; or any two or more of them may be compelled to pay the whole or a part of the expense of maintaining the poor person, according to their ability.

6. When relatives fail to relieve and maintain their friends, as required by law, the overseers of the poor may apply to the court of general sessions of the county for an order to compel such relief.

of moving roads and bridges? How is it raised? § 13. Is any provision made for the poor? § 14. What are the duties of the overseers of the poor? Are all poor persons supported by the public? What relatives are obliged to support their poor friends? § 16. How are they compelled when they refuse?

CHAPTER XVIII.

Town Superintendent of Common Schools ; Constables ; Inspectors of Election.

§ 1. To carry into effect the laws concerning common schools, some officers are necessary in the several towns and counties. The officer who is intrusted with this business in each town, is the *town superintendent of common schools*, who is to be chosen at the annual town meeting. This officer performs the duties which have, until the present year, (1843,) been performed by three commissioners of common schools, and formerly three, and more lately two, inspectors of common schools.

§ 2. The town superintendent has power to divide the town into a convenient number of school districts, which are to be described and numbered by him, and the description and numbers delivered to the town clerk, to be put on record. As towns have been thus divided into districts, little of this nature is to be done, except occasionally to alter or divide a district, or form a new one ; in which case the trustees of a district may apply to the supervisor and town clerk to associate with the superintendent.

§ 3. The superintendent must give a bond with sureties, in a sum of double the amount of school money received the preceding year by the town, conditioned, that he will faithfully apply all the school money that shall come into his hands. He receives from the county treasurer the school money apportioned to the town, and from the town collector the school money raised in the town ; and apportions the money so received, among the districts, in proportion to the number of children in each, over five and under sixteen years.

§ 4. He must also report to the county clerk the number of school districts in the town ; the districts which have made their reports to him ; the length of time a school has been kept

§ 1. What office has the superintendent of common schools in each town ? § 2. What are his power and duties in regard to districts ? § 3. What bond does he execute ? What are his duties respecting the school money ? § 4. What does he report to the county clerk ? § 5. What are

1, and what portion of the time by inspected teachers ; number of children taught in each district the preceding and the number residing in it between the ages of five and years ; the amount received by the town the preceding the amount received by each district, and the manner ch it has been expended.

The inspection of teachers also, now devolves upon superintendent. Persons wishing to teach a school apply to the superintendent, who examines them ect to their learning and ability ; and he inquires, or o inquire, also as to their moral character ; for it is high- essary that scholars should be instructed in the princi- f true morality as well as in other things. If the ntendent thinks a person qualified to teach, he gives h person a *certificate*, stating that he believes him so qualified. Such certificate has effect for one year after which a new certificate is required.

The superintendent must also visit the schools at least year, to examine into their condition, to give advice teachers and trustees, as to the government of the s and the studies to be pursued in them. If he finds, mining any school, or ascertains in any other way, he teacher is not competent to teach or manage a , or is of bad character, he may annul the certificate h teacher. To *annul* a certificate is to make or pro- e it void, or of no effect.

The inhabitants of each district choose a *clerk*, whose t is to give notice of meetings called by the trustees ; ord in a book the proceedings of the district, and to ll the books and papers belonging to his office ; *three* s, who call meetings, make out tax lists, build a -house, employ teachers, receive and pay out the public ; and transact other business of the district ; and a r, who collects all taxes voted to be raised in the dis- und the money for teachers' wages, and pays the same trustees.

The trustees are required every year, in January, by

as inspector of teachers ? § 6. What as to visiting schools ? As illing certificates ? § 7. What officers are there in each school ? What are the general duties of each ? § 8. to whom do the report yearly ? What do they report ? State the number. districts,

the 15th, to report to the superintendent the whole school has been kept, in the district, during the year; the amount of money received and how it has been expended; the number of children taught and residing in the district, and the names of their parents or other persons with whom they reside. The trustees thus reporting to the town superintendent, and he to the county clerk, and the county clerk to the state superintendent of common schools, the number of districts and scholars in the state, and the amount of money paid to teachers, are every year ascertain- ing. In 1842, the number of districts was 10,893; children 5 and 16 years, 601,765, not including New York city; scholars taught 598,749, including New York city; of the school fund \$1,968,290; money received in the year from all sources, \$666,903.]

§ 9. *Constables*, not less than three, nor more than five, as the electors shall determine, are chosen in each town. The principal duties of a constable are, to serve all process issued by justices of the peace, in suits at law for contracts, debts, and for arresting persons charged with crime.

§ 10. *Inspectors of election*. Until the present year, the supervisor, town clerk, and assessors, were inspectors of election. By a late act of the legislature, the supervisor, assessors and town-clerk, are required to divide all towns containing more than five hundred electors, into two election districts, so that no district shall contain more than five hundred electors; and at the annual town meeting the electors choose two persons residing in each district as inspectors of election in such district. And immediately after the votes of the town meeting are canvassed, the poll officers of the meeting appoint a third inspector, to be chosen from the two persons in the district who have received the highest number of votes next to the two inspectors.

§ 11. The inspectors keep the ballot-boxes, and receive from them the ballots handed to them by the voters. They employ two clerks, each of whom is to keep a poll list, with a list of the names of all persons voting at the election. At this list it may at any time be known who have voted.

children, &c., in the state. § 9. How many constables are general in each town? What are their duties? § 10 How are towns divided into election districts? How are inspectors of election chosen?

if a person may be detected if he should offer to vote a second time; and on counting the ballots, if the number is found to agree with the number of names on the poll list, and if the lists of both clerks agree, it is presumed there is no mistake in the election.

12. It is the duty of the inspectors to keep order and regularity at the election; and they have power to commit to jail any person for disorderly conduct. It is their duty also to prevent persons from voting who have no right to vote; and if any person is suspected of offering to vote without being qualified, they may require him to make oath of his qualifications.

13. After the poll is closed, that is, after the voting is ended, the inspectors publicly canvass the votes, and make a statement of the number of votes given for each person qualified for; which statement is to be delivered to the supervisor, and carried to the meeting of the board of county canvassers. This board consists of the several supervisors in the county, who meet to ascertain the whole number of votes cast in the county, at the election.

CHAPTER XIX.

Town Sealer; Board of Auditors of Town Accounts; Commissioners of Excise; Fence Viewers; Strays; Pound Masters.

1. The *town sealer* is required to keep correct copies of the standard of weights and measures established by the state. Copies of such standard are furnished by the state to each county sealer, at the expense of the county, and he furnishes each town sealer with a copy of the different weights and measures, at the expense of the town. The town sealer must compare such copy once in three years, and that in the office of the county sealer.

Why, and why, are poll lists kept? § 12. What are the power and duties of inspectors as to keeping order at elections? § 13. After the poll is closed, what is done?

Whence does the town sealer receive copies of standard weights and measures? § 1, 2. What are his duties? What is the penalty for

§ 2 When weights and measures are brought to the town sealer, he compares them with the copy in his possession, and if they are not correct, he makes them conform to the lawful standard, and seals and marks them. If a person uses a weight or measure that does not agree with the standard, and by which any purchaser suffers injury, the party injured may sue the offender, and recover three times the amount of damage.

§ 3. There is in every town a *board of auditors of town accounts*, consisting of the supervisor and town clerk, together with the justices, or any two of them. They meet every year, on the last Saturday preceding the annual meeting of the board of supervisors of the county, for the purpose of auditing and allowing the accounts of all charges and claims against the town. A particular statement of the accounts audited and certified by a majority of the board, is delivered to the town clerk, to be kept on file in his office for inspection by the inhabitants of the town, and a copy of such certified statement is delivered to the supervisor, to be laid before the board of supervisors.

§ 4. *Commissioners of excise* are a board of officers who meet on the first Monday in May in every year, to grant licenses to tavern keepers and grocers, for selling spirituous liquors in small quantities. *Excise* is a duty or tax which is paid for the right to sell such liquors. These commissioners are the supervisor, and the four justices of the town. The supervisor and two justices, or if there is no supervisor at the time, three justices have power to grant licenses to tavern keepers to sell liquors, only to be drank in their house or on their premises; and to grocers, but not to be drank in their shops or on their premises. And without such license no person has a right to sell such liquors in quantities less than five gallons.

§ 5. A tavern-keeper must give a bond in the sum of \$125, with a surety, that he will keep an orderly house, and the commissioners must be satisfied that he is of good moral character, and has the necessary accommodations for

using unsealed weights and measures? § 3. Who constitute the board of auditors? When do they meet? What do they do? § 4. Who are the commissioners of excise? What is excise? When do they meet? For what purpose? State the nature of the licenses they give? § 5. What is required

travellers; and that a tavern for their accommodation is necessary at the place where it is to be kept. Grocers must also be deemed to be of good character, and give a like bond that they will not suffer their groceries to be disorderly, nor allow liquor to be drank on their premises.

§ 6. The commissioners have power to determine the sum to be paid for a license; which may not be less than five, nor more than thirty dollars. The money obtained for licenses is applied to the support of the poor. Persons selling liquors in quantities less than five gallons, without license, or tavern-keepers and grocers selling otherwise than according to their licenses, may be prosecuted and fined, not exceeding twenty-five dollars for each offence.

§ 7. Licenses to keep tavern may be granted without including a license to sell spirituous liquors; in which case nothing is paid for a license. No person may keep up a tavern sign, unless he has a license to keep tavern. For every day he shall so keep up a sign, he shall forfeit one dollar and twenty-five cents.

§ 8. *Fence viewers.* The assessors and commissioners of highways are the fence viewers of each town. Their duties relate principally to division fences, and the estimation of damages by cattle, and of charges for keeping strays and animals impounded.

§ 9. Each of the owners of adjoining lands must make and maintain a just proportion of the division fence between them, unless one of them shall choose to let his land lie open; but if he shall afterwards enclose it, he must refund a just proportion of the value of the fence, or build his proportion. And if a dispute arises between the owners of adjoining lands, concerning the division fence, which they cannot settle themselves, it may be settled by two of the fence viewers, of whom each party chooses one; but if either party neglects to make such choice after eight days' notice, the other party chooses both. The two thus chosen, if they disagree, choose another fence viewer to act with them; and the decision of any two agreeing is binding upon the parties.

red of tavern-keepers and grocers? § 6. How much or how little may be charged for a license? § 7. May licenses be granted to any without charge? To whom? What is the penalty for keeping tavern without a sign? § 8. Who are fence viewers? To what do their duties relate? § 9. State the

§ 10. The electors may, at their town meeting, prescribe what shall be a sufficient fence; and if a person does not keep such fence, he cannot recover payment for damage done by beasts lawfully running on the highways; and if a person does not keep his part of a division fence in repair he is liable to pay damage to the party injured, the damage to be ascertained by two fence viewers. If he shall neglect for one month after request in writing, to repair such fence the party injured may repair it at the expense of the party so neglecting.

§ 11. *Strays*. If at any time a strayed horse, or if, between the first day of November and the first day of April thereafter, any strayed neat cattle or sheep, come upon the enclosed land of any person, such person must, within ten days, make a note in writing, containing his name and place of abode, and a description of the strays, and deliver it to the town clerk, to be entered in the town book. This is done that the owner of animals straying at that season may know where he is likely to get information concerning them.

§ 12. The owner of strays thus entered, before he is entitled to take the same, must pay to the keeper his fees for getting them entered, the fees of the clerk for entering them and the charges for keeping them. If they cannot agree upon the amount of charges to be paid, the owner may choose two fence viewers to estimate the charges, who for their services must be paid by the owner of the strays.

§ 13. If no person appears to claim the strays on or before the first of May, or if the owner refuses to pay the charges, the keeper may, after giving due public notice, sell them to the highest bidder, and the residue of the money after deducting all charges, must be paid to the owner on demand, if it shall be demanded within a year after the sale but if not demanded within one year, he loses his claim to it, and it is paid to the supervisor for the use of the town.

§ 14. *Pound-masters* are chosen at town meetings to keep

law here given, about making division fences; and the manner of settling disputes between owners of land. § 10. In what cases may, and in what may not, the owner of land recover for damage done by cattle? § 11. If a stray comes into a man's enclosure, what is the lawful course for him to take? § 12. What must be done to entitle the owner to his stray? § 13. If the owner never appears, what is done? § 14. What is a pound? What

pounds. A *pound* is a small enclosure surrounded by a fence, in which beasts having done damage are confined. Any person suffering damage by unruly animals, keep them in a safe place other than the public pound, within twenty-four hours, (Sunday excepted,) he must pay to two fence viewers to appraise the damage. If the fine and expenses are not paid within twenty-four hours after, the beasts are put into the nearest pound in the town; and if they are not discharged according to law, within six days, they may be sold to pay the damage sustained, and the charges for impounding and keeping them.

CHAPTER XX.

County Officers.—Board of Supervisors; Treasurer; Clerk; Sheriff; Surrogate; District Attorney; Judges; Superintendents of Poor; Superintendent of Schools.

1. A COUNTY, like a town, is a body corporate, constituted by an act of the legislature and having the same rights and powers. The powers of a county, as a body politic, are exercised in the name of the board of supervisors of the county, and all acts and proceedings by or against it, must be in their name.
2. The principal officers of a county are, the board of supervisors, a county clerk, a county treasurer, a sheriff, coroners, five county judges, a surrogate, and a district attorney.
3. The *board of Supervisors* consists of the supervisors of several towns in the county. They meet annually, on a day designated by law, which is, in most counties, in the month of October or November; and they may also hold special meetings when necessary.
4. The board has power to make orders concerning the

dealing with animals before impounding them? What is the duty of the town-master.

In whose name are the powers of a county exercised? § 2. Who are the principal county officers? § 3. Who compose the board of supervisors? When do they meet? § 4. What are their duties? § 5. What is

corporate property of the county ; to examine and settle the accounts against the county, and to order the raising of money to defray its expenses ; to provide for repairing the court-house and other county buildings ; to audit the accounts of town officers and other persons, against their respective towns, and direct the raising of money to defray the same, and to perform such other duties as the laws require.

§ 5. They choose one of their number at every meeting to preside as chairman ; and whenever it may be necessary they appoint a clerk, who is not one of their number. The clerk records the proceedings of the board in a book, and preserves and files all accounts acted upon by the board. Their books, records, and accounts are deposited with the clerk, and may be examined by persons wishing to do so. The clerk is entitled to a reasonable compensation for his services, to be fixed by the board, and paid by the county. The compensation of each supervisor as member of the board, is two dollars a day.

§ 6. The *county treasurer* is appointed by the board of supervisors, and holds his office at their pleasure. He gives them a bond with sureties, in such sum as they direct, for the faithful performance of his duties. He receives all the money belonging to the county, and pays and applies the money as the law requires. He also receives such money belonging to the state, as is required by law to be paid to him, and transmits to the comptroller, every year, on or before the first of March, a statement of the money of the state received by him ; and at the same time pays the money to the state treasurer. He has a few other duties to perform, some of which are mentioned in other chapters. He receives as a compensation one per cent. on every dollar received and paid by him.

§ 7. The *county clerk* is elected by the people at the annual election, for three years. He has the custody of all the books, records, deeds, maps, and papers, relating to the business of the office, and files all papers required to be filed in his office ; and he records in books all deeds, mortgages, or other conveyances, and all papers and documents required

done by their clerk ? What is their compensation ? § 6. By whom is the county treasurer appointed ? What are his duties ? His compensation ?

by law to be recorded. (For definition of deeds, &c., see Chap. 29.) County clerks, except in the county of New-York, are clerks of the county and circuit courts held in their respective counties.

§ 8. The clerk of each county serves also as clerk of the board of county canvassers of the general election; and transmits to the secretary of state a list of the names of the persons elected in the county, as members of assembly, sheriffs, and coroners; and to the governor, comptroller, and secretary of state, each, a statement of the votes given in the county for governor, lieutenant governor, state senators, and representatives in congress; which statement is to be by them delivered to the state canvassers, to ascertain the whole number of votes given in all the counties, for all state officers. The state canvassers are the secretary of state, the comptroller, the attorney-general, the surveyor-general, and the treasurer.

§ 9. Other duties performed by the county clerk, are mentioned in other places. He has no salary; his compensation consists of *fees*, which are fixed by law, for recording, filing, and all other business done by him. He employs a deputy at his own expense.

§ 10. *Sheriffs* are chosen at the general election, for three years; and they may not be elected for the next three years. A sheriff must give a bond, with sureties, in the sum of \$10,000 for the faithful performance of his duties; and this bond is to be renewed every year. The bond of the sheriff of the county of New-York is \$20,000. The sheriff appoints an under sheriff, to perform the duties of sheriff in case the office should become vacant, until a new sheriff shall be elected; and he also appoints as many deputies as he may think proper.

§ 11. It is the duty of the sheriff to attend the sitting of all courts held in the county; to serve all processes directed to him by any of the state or county courts; and to have the custody of the jails and of the prisoners in them.

§ 7. How, when, and for what term, is the county clerk chosen? What is his general business? § 8. What in regard to elections, &c.? Who are the county and state canvassers? § 9. What is a clerk's compensation? § 10. When and for what term are sheriffs elected? What bonds must they give? What under officers has a sheriff? § 11. What are his general

Executions issued out of any courts in the state, against property of any person, are directed to the sheriff of county in which the person resides.

§ 12. There are in each county four *coroners*, who are chosen at the general election, and hold their offices for three years. When a person has been slain, or has suddenly died, notice is given to a coroner, who goes to the place where such person shall be, to inquire into the cause of his death. A jury is summoned, and witnesses subpoenaed, among whom there is generally a physician or surgeon. After examination, the jury give their opinion in writing, as to the cause and manner of the death. Such examination into the cause of a person's death, is called a *coroner's inquest*. Coroners perform the duties of sheriff, when vacancies happen in the offices of both sheriff and under sheriff.

§ 13. The *surrogate* of each county is appointed by the governor and senate. He inquires into and settles the estates of persons that have lately died. He examines witnesses to prove whether the wills of such deceased persons are valid or not. A *will* is a writing in which a person directs how his property shall be disposed of after his death. If the surrogate is satisfied that the will is lawfully made, he approves it. This officer is, in some states, called judge of probate. The Latin *probatus* means proof; hence probate has come to mean proving of a will. The duties of surrogates will be more particularly described. (See Wills and Testament.)

§ 14. The *district attorney* is appointed by the judges of the county courts. He attends all courts in which persons are tried for crimes, and conducts all prosecutions of crimes tried in such courts.

§ 15. The *judges of county courts* are appointed by the governor and senate, for five years. For a description of their powers and duties, see Chap. 24. The judges receive two dollars a day for attending courts.

§ 16. The *superintendents of the poor* of the county, of whom there must be not less than three, nor more than five, are appointed by the board of supervisors, to hold their offices

duties? 12. How many coroners in each county? How, and for what term chosen? What is a coroner's business? § 13. How is the surrogate appointed? What are his duties? § 14. State the mode of appointment and duties of district attorney. § 15. How and for what term are county

the year, and until others are appointed. They have the usual powers of a corporation, and the general care and maintenance of the county poor.

7. It is their duty to provide places for keeping the poor by buying or renting suitable buildings for the purpose; to provide the means of supporting the poor. They are the keepers of the poor-houses and other places at which the poor are kept, and make rules for the government of these places. They draw on the county treasurer for money to pay the expenses of the poor, and account to the board of supervisors for all money received and expended by them. They are required to cause pauper children over five and under sixteen years of age, to be educated at least one part of the time they remain at the poor-house. The superintendents are entitled to a reasonable compensation, to be determined by the supervisors.

8. There is also a *county superintendent of common schools* in each county, appointed by the board of supervisors, to hold his office two years. In counties containing more than one hundred and fifty school districts, the board may, if it think proper, appoint two superintendents, dividing the county into two districts, and assigning one district to each superintendent.

9. A county superintendent of common schools has the supervision over the schools throughout the county, as a superintendent has in his town. He may grant teaching certificates, which shall entitle a teacher to teach for an indefinite time, without re-examination.

When appointed? § 16, 17. How and for what term are superintendents of common schools appointed? What are their powers and duties? § 17. How do they provide for the poor; account for money, &c.? § 18. How is the county superintendent of schools appointed? For what term? § 19. What are the duties of this officer?

CHAPTER XXI.

Of the Assessment and Collection of Taxes.

§ 1. As no government can be maintained without expense, and as every person is in some way benefited by government, it is the duty of all who are able, to pay something for its support. And every good government within itself the power to provide the means necessary for this purpose. One way of raising money to defray the expenses of government, is by taxation; and the money which each person pays is called a *tax*. The state officers, as has been shown in preceding chapters, are paid out of the funds. But the expenses incurred in the several towns and counties, are raised by a tax upon the property of the citizens.

§ 2. All lands and all personal estate are liable to taxation in this state, except public property; buildings erected for colleges, academies, and common schools, and for places of worship; the property of literary and charitable institutions, and the property of every minister of the gospel to the amount of \$1500. *Lands, real property, and real estate*, have the same meaning, and include land with all buildings and other articles erected or growing thereon. *Personal estate* or *personal property*, includes all household furniture, money, goods, chattels, and debts due from solvent creditors.

§ 3. As taxes are laid upon property, and as each person is to pay in proportion to the value of his property, the thing to be ascertained is, what amount of property is owned by each person in the town. This is the business of the *assessors*, of whom there are usually three elected in each town, at the annual town meeting. There must be at least three, and there may not be more than five assessors.

§ 4. The assessors pass through the town, between the first of May and the first of July, and set down in an assessment roll the names of all the taxable inhabitants, and the value of all the property of each, real and personal.

§ 1. How is money raised to pay public expenses? What is a tax? By what expenses are taxes laid? § 2. On what are taxes laid? What property is exempt? What is real, and what personal estate? § 3. What is the first business of assessors? § 4. How do they estimate and set

If any one is owing debts, the amount of such debts is to be deducted from the value of his personal property; but no deduction may be made from the value of his real estate. If there is land which is unoccupied, and is owned by persons not residing in the town, it is called "land of non-residents." Such land must also be assessed.

§ 5. The assessors then put up notices in three or more places in the town, stating that the assessment roll is completed, and left with one of their number, who is named in the notice, where the roll may be examined by any of the inhabitants during twenty days, to see whether their property has been assessed at too high a value. At the expiration of twenty days, the assessors meet at the place mentioned, to review their assessments; and persons who think their property set down at too high an estimate, are allowed to prove its true value, or they make affidavit of what they consider to be its true value: and the assessors then reduce their assessment accordingly. An *affidavit* is a declaration in writing, sworn to before a proper officer.

§ 6. The assessment roll of each town is taken by the supervisor to the meeting of the board of supervisors, by whom each man's tax is to be estimated. But the assessors of some towns assess property higher than those of other towns; and unless the assessments were made equal, the people in some towns must pay more than a just share of the taxes. To prevent this, the board, before taxes are estimated, so increase or diminish the valuation of real estates in certain towns, as to make it equal to the valuation in other towns.

§ 7. But by equalizing the valuations, it is not to be understood that the land in all the towns is estimated at the same value by the acre; because the land in some towns, being in a better state of cultivation or lying nearer to market, is worth more than the land in other towns; but to equalize valuations, the valuation of the land in one town must be made to bear a just relation to the valuation in another, according to the quality and real worth of the land in each.

the value of property? § 5. When this is done, what notice do they give? For what purpose? How are assessments corrected? § 6. What do the board of supervisors do with the assessment rolls before the tax is estimated? § 7. By what rule is this done? § 8. By whom are the taxes estimated?

§ 8. The board then cause the tax to be estimated is generally done by their clerk; and the amount person's tax, in dollars and cents, is set down opposite valuation of his property in the assessment roll. of the roll is then delivered to each supervisor, and to the clerk of his town, to be kept for the use of it another copy is to be delivered to the collector of by the 15th of December; to which copy is a *warrant*, signed by every member of the board, commanding the collector to collect from each person named in the amount of his tax.

§ 9. The *collector* of the town, after receiving the roll and warrant, collects the taxes. If any person neglects to pay his tax, the collector is authorized to sell the property of such person. But he cannot sell real estate of any person for taxes.

§ 10. When the taxes are collected, the collector turns over the money as directed in the warrant, after deducting what he is entitled to for his services, which is five or five cents on every dollar, unless at the town meeting the electors voted to allow a less per centage. To the superintendent of common schools he pays the sum for the support of the common schools; to the board of supervisors raised for the support of highways and bridges; to the overseers of the poor, (where there is no poor house or place for keeping the poor of the county,) the sum for the support of the poor in the town; to the sheriff all other money raised in the town to defray any other expenses; and the residue to the county treasury on the first day of February.

§ 11. The collector is required to deliver to the treasurer an account of all the taxes remaining unpaid which he is not able to collect. The amount of taxes not collected is to be paid to the treasurer. The county clerk sends to the comptroller a statement of all lands in the

How are the rolls then disposed of? § 9. Who collects the tax property may he not sell for taxes? § 10. What compensation receive? To what officers does he pay the money collected? What returns does he make of unpaid taxes? What are the duties of treasurer and of the comptroller, in regard to such taxes?

on which the taxes are unpaid, and of the amount of taxes charged on such lands; and if the taxes remain unpaid two years from the first day of May in the year after they were assessed, the comptroller proceeds to advertise and sell the lands. If such lands shall not be redeemed within two years after such sale, by the payment of the taxes due, and of all charges, the comptroller shall execute a deed of the land to the purchaser.

CHAPTER XXII.

Of Courts of Justice.—Justices' Courts.

§ 1. In the preceding chapters it has been shown how the laws of the state are made, and how the government is administered; and also what are the powers and duties of officers in the legislative and executive departments of the government. There is another class of officers, whose powers and duties remain to be described, called *judicial officers*. The business of judicial officers is to administer justice to the citizens; and when sitting for that purpose they are called a *court*. Sometimes we mean by court, the judges or justices, jurors, and other persons engaged in a trial; but frequently only the judges or justices holding the court are meant.

§ 2. The necessity of courts of justice is easily seen. It would be improper to allow every man who thinks himself injured to be judge in his own case, as to what is right or wrong, and to punish others for acts which he might think to be contrary to law. If such were the case, there might as well be no law at all. Mankind are generally partial to themselves; and therefore they would be unsafe judges between themselves and others. Besides, but a small portion of the people are sufficiently learned in the law to be judges.

§ 3. Hence, that justice may be done to all, as far as possible, it must be obtained in courts of law; and to prevent injustice from being done to any member of the community,

§ 1. What is the business of judicial officers? § 2. From what does the necessity of courts of justice appear? § 3. To prevent injustice in case of

the constitution requires, that in all cases of crime, openly it may been committed, the offender must ha and impartial rial. (Cons. art. 7, § 1, 2, 7.)

§ 4. There are numerous kinds of courts in the sta of a higher, and others of a lower order. Some have and others special jurisdiction, and that which limited. When we speak of the jurisdiction of a o have reference to its power to pronounce the law. *The jurisdiction* is composed of two Latin words, *jus*, l *dictio*, a speaking; hence *juris dictio*, a speaking of The jurisdiction of a court therefore means how far what cases, it has power to try and determine que law.

§ 5. Some courts have power only to try civil others have jurisdiction in causes both civil and crimins have jurisdiction in cases arising in any part of th others only in cases arising within the county. suits at law are tried in justices' courts, and as ca be carried up from them to the higher courts, we shu with the lowest and proceed to the highest.

§ 6. *Justice's court.* A justice of the peace ca cause only in the town for which he is chosen, and he resides, though he can issue a process in any to county. And he can try civil causes only, and on in which a limited sum is sued for. Causes are cal when money is claimed; *criminal*, when persons for crime. Causes, actions, and suits, though at different in meaning, are words generally used to the same thing, meaning prosecutions at law, or law

§ 7. A justice can try suits only in which the su for does not exceed \$100; but he may take and ent ment on the confession of a defendant, for any sur ceeding \$250. (See Chap. 23, § 7.) No suit can menced before, or tried by, a justice who is a tavern- but he may issue executions on judgments previous by him.

crime, what does the constitution require? § 4 What differs courts are there? What is jurisdiction? § 5. What difference i tween the jurisdiction of one court and that of another? § 6. justice's jurisdiction limited? What is a civil suit? Criminal cause, action, suit. § 7. To what sum is a justice limited? In

ctions must be brought before a justice of a town in which one of the parties resides, or of a town adjoining, in the county; otherwise a plaintiff might maliciously take suit to the remotest part of the county, simply to create unnecessary trouble, or perhaps to compel him to sue on unjust terms. A *plaintiff* is the party that brings suit. The party sued is called *defendant*, because he *defends* the suit.

Suits may be commenced by the parties going directly before a justice; but this is seldom done. Suits are generally commenced by *process*, which means a legal instrument issued by a justice, enforcing proceedings. The process by which a suit is in most cases commenced is a *summons*; and the action is considered commenced on the day when the summons is delivered to the

A summons is addressed to any constable of the county, commanding him to summon the defendant to appear before the justice, on a day and at an hour specified, which shall be not less than six nor more than twelve days after the date of the summons, to answer the plaintiff in a plea made in response to the summons. The summons must be served at least six days before the time when the defendant is to appear.

If the defendant is found, the constable serves the summons by reading it; and if the defendant requests it, the constable must give him a copy of it. If he is not found, a copy must be left at his place of abode, with some one of suitable age. The constable returns the summons to the justice, at or before the time named for trial, with an endorsement on the back of it, stating the time it was served, and also whether personally served, or served by copy.

If served by copy, and the defendant does not appear, a new summons is immediately issued.

Either party may appear in person, or by attorney, or by other person appointed to answer and act for him. Infants and minors must always have a next friend or guardian to act for them. When parties have appeared

What is the next step? § 8. In what town must a suit be brought? Who brings it? Defendant? § 9. How are suits usually commenced? By process? A summons? § 10. What does a summons contain? How is a summons served? How returned to the justice? § 11. How

and answered to their names, they make their p that is, the plaintiff declares for what he brings and the defendant declares the nature of what l *offset* against the plaintiff's demand; or he pleads tl paid him, or that he never owed him, as the case These acts of the parties are called *joining iss* pleadings may be either verbal, (by word,) or w written, the justice must file and keep them; if v must enter the substance of them in his docket.

§ 13. A defendant cannot offset any demand may buy, or in any other way get against a plain the suit has been commenced. And a defendant mu ing issue, plead, or give notice of a set-off, speci nature of his claim, or he will not be entitled to and if he neglects to offset his claim, he can never recover such demand by law. There are certain which a defendant is not obliged to bring in against a

§ 14. If the demands of the parties are unequal tice enters judgment against the party owing, for th due the other, with the costs of suit. *Judgment* i adjudged to be due from the one to the other, an includes the costs, which consist of the fees of th constable, and witnesses. If nothing is found to b plaintiff, judgment is entered against him for the c

§ 15. At the time of joing issue, the justice m request of the plaintiff, *adjourn*, or put over, the exceeding eight days; but if required by the defe plaintiff must make oath that he cannot, for the war material witness, safely proceed to trial. The also is entitled to an adjournment, for such reason as may be necessary for him to procure a materia not exceeding ninety days, if, when required by t tiff or the justice, he makes oath that he cannot sa trial without such witness.

§ 16. A man's own word is not taken as proof in in a court of justice: he cannot establish a fact w *nesses*. The justice, therefore, on the request of eit

do parties appear? What are pleadings? What is joining is What is said about set-off? § 14. Against which party is judg ed? § 15. In what cases, and for how long a time, may a suit be § 16. What is a subpoena? Its effect? By whom served?

is a *subpoena*, which is a writing commanding persons to appear and give evidence on the trial; but a subpoena only compels the attendance of witnesses being in the county or a county adjoining. A subpoena may be served by a constable or any other person, who must pay, or to pay, the witness the fees allowed by law for one day's attendance, which is twelve and a half cents, or the witness is obliged to attend.

7. If a person duly subpoenaed does not appear, the party for whom he was subpoenaed may make oath that the testimony of the witness is material; whereupon the justice may issue an attachment commanding the constable to bring the witness, who must pay the fees of both the justice and constable, unless he shall show reasonable cause for not appearing. And a witness who, without a reasonable excuse, does not appear, or appearing, refuses to testify, may be fined by the justice not less than sixty-two and a half cents, nor more than ten dollars, for the use of the poor; and if the fine is not paid, he may be imprisoned not exceeding thirty days or until the fine shall be paid: and he is liable also for all damage sustained by the party in whose behalf he was subpoenaed.

8. At the time of trial, the justice proceeds to try the case.

The witnesses are sworn to testify truly to what they see and hear; and after hearing the proof on both sides, the justice decides according to law and equity, as the right of the case appears. If a defendant does not appear at the time of trial, the justice may hear the proofs and allegations of the plaintiff, and determine the case according to what shall be proved by that party alone.

ed or paid a witness? § 17. If a witness does not appear what may be done? In what cases may he be fined and imprisoned? To what is he liable? § 18. How does the justice proceed and try the issue?

CHAPTER XXIII.

Trial by Juries ; Collection of Judgments ; Appeal

§ 1. One of the most valuable privileges enjoyed people of this country, is the right of trial by jury. so happen that a suit is brought before a justice who well informed in matters of law ; or he may be so to entertain feelings of partiality towards one of the parties or it may be suspected that he is not an honest man. Therefore, it is not always safe to submit a cause to a justice for decision. And that all may have the means of obtaining justice, the constitution secures to every person the privilege of having a jury to try any cause to which he is entitled. (Cons. art. 7, § 2.)

§ 2. A *jury* is a number of men who sit on a trial and are sworn to try a matter of fact, and to declare the result according to evidence. This declaring of the truth is called a *verdict*, which means a true saying. A jury in a justice's court consists of six men, all of whom must agree in the verdict. It is therefore presumed, that, when so many are all of one opinion, their verdict is correct.

§ 3. The manner of obtaining a jury is as follows: any time after issue is joined, and before any testimony is heard, either party may demand of the justice that the cause be tried by a jury. The justice then issues a *venire*, which is a precept commanding a constable to summon twelve persons duly qualified, to appear before the justice to make a trial. A list of the names of the persons summoned is made by the constable, annexed to the *venire*, and returned to the justice.

§ 4. At the trial of the cause, the names of the persons returned, and who shall appear, are written on separate pieces of paper, and put into a box or a hat, out of which the justice draws the names of six men, against whom no objection shall be made: for no man may serve as a

§ 1. Why is the right of trial by jury a great privilege? § 2. What is a jury? A verdict? § 3. How is a jury obtained? What is a *venire*? How returned? § 4. How are jurors drawn? Who may not

if objected to, who is not a freeholder, nor owns personal estate worth \$250, or who is nearly related to either party, or has any interest in the suit to be tried, or has already formed an opinion. If a sufficient number shall not be drawn, the justice may direct the constable to summon of the by standers or others to make up the deficiency.

§ 5. After hearing the proofs and allegations of the parties, the jurors are put under the charge of a constable, who is sworn to keep them in some convenient place, without meat or drink, except such as the justice may order, till they agree on their verdict, or till discharged by the justice. Nor shall the constable allow any person to speak to them during such time, nor speak to them himself, except by order of the justice, unless to ask them whether they have agreed on their verdict.

§ 6. When jurors have agreed on their verdict, they publicly deliver it to the justice, who enters it in his docket. If the jurors do not all agree after having been out a reasonable time, the justice may discharge them; and he shall then issue a new venire, returnable within forty-eight hours, unless the parties consent that the justice may render judgment on the evidence. Persons summoned as jurors may be fined in the same manner as witnesses, for not appearing, or for refusing to serve.

§ 7. Any person owing another and wishing to avoid paying the cost of a suit at law, may *confess judgment*. This is done by going before the justice, and signing a writing, stating the amount of the debt due to the plaintiff, and his consent that the justice enter judgment accordingly. If the sum confessed to be due is more than \$50, both the plaintiff and the defendant must be present, and make affidavit that the sum confessed is honestly due, and that the confession is not made to defraud any creditor.

§ 8. When a plaintiff discontinues or withdraws his action; or fails to appear within one hour after the time appointed for the suit to commence; or if he does not appear on the coming in of a jury to hear the verdict; or if he becomes

§ 5. After hearing proof, &c., what is done with the jury? What is forbidden? § 6. If jurors agree, what? If they do not agree, what? § 7. How is a judgment confessed? When a debt is over \$50, what is required? § 8. In what cases is judgment rendered against a plaintiff? § 9. What is

non-suited on the trial; in either case the justice renders judgment of non-suit with costs against the plaintiff. When a trial is had, and it is found by verdict, or by decision of the justice, that the plaintiff has no cause of action against the defendant, judgment with costs is rendered against the plaintiff.

§ 9. After a judgment has been rendered, it must be carried into effect; that is, the debt or damage, with the costs, must be collected. This is done by a constable. The writ or instrument giving him authority, is called an *execution* issued by the justice. If the judgment does not exceed twenty-five dollars and costs of suit, the justice may issue an execution at the end of thirty days, if the judgment has not been paid; but if the debt alone, exclusive of costs, exceeds twenty-five dollars, the execution does not issue until after the expiration of ninety days.

§ 10. The execution is directed to any constable in the county, and commands him to take and sell, the goods and chattels of the debtor, and to bring the money for the debt and costs, to the justice, within thirty days, in cases where the damages alone do not exceed twenty-five dollars; where the damages alone exceed twenty-five dollars, the money must be brought within ninety days. If no property is found, the constable returns the execution to the justice as unsatisfied. A justice of the peace cannot issue execution against real estate, but only against the personal property of debtors.

§ 11. If a constable, through negligence, shall fail to execute a judgment as required by the execution, or shall fail to return the execution within the thirty or ninety days, he is liable himself to pay the amount of the judgment. If he is not able to pay it, his surety is liable; for every constable is required to give a bond, with surety for the due performance of his duties.

§ 12. But there are certain articles of personal property which poor men have always been allowed to retain for their use and comfort of their families. By a law of 1842, nec-

an execution? How long after rendering judgment is it issued? What does an execution command? If no personal property is to be sold, what? § 11. If a constable fails to do his duty, what must he do? § 11

household furniture, tools, and a team, to the amount of \$150, are exempt from execution, in addition to articles previously exempt by law.

§ 13. Prior to the year 1831, men who had not property wherewith to satisfy executions against them, might be taken by a constable, and committed to the county jail. But that unreasonable law was abolished in the year above mentioned. In cases, however, where executions are issued to collect judgments against persons for injuries done to property, for fines, and the like, such persons may still be imprisoned.

§ 14. Such is a description of the proceedings of a justice's court, in ordinary cases. But there are many things connected with the business of this court which must be learned from other books, and from observation. There are also other processes than a summons, which a justice issues for bringing persons to trial. One of these is a *warrant*, in which a constable is commanded, forthwith to bring the defendant before the justice. But this cannot be done in ordinary cases of debt.

§ 15. Another process issued by justices, is an *attachment*. This is issued when a debtor keeps himself concealed, or has departed, or is about to depart, from the county, with intent to defraud his creditors, or to avoid being prosecuted; or is about to remove from the county his property, to defraud his creditors, or has disposed of or secreted it, or is about to do so, with the like intent. A creditor making either of these facts appear to the satisfaction of a justice, the justice may issue an attachment, commanding a constable to attach and keep the property of the defendant, in order to satisfy any judgment which may be obtained against him.

§ 16. The constable serving an attachment, must leave a copy of it, with an inventory of the property attached, at the defendant's last place of residence; or if he had none in the county, the copy and inventory must be left with the person in whose possession the property was found.

kind of property being exempt from execution? § 13. What is said of imprisonment for debt? § 14. What is the nature of a warrant? § 15. In what cases is an attachment issued? How is it obtained? § 16. How is

§ 17. If the defendant does not appear on the day of trial the plaintiff may proceed to prove his demand, and the justice enters judgment for the amount proved to be due with costs. To satisfy a judgment so taken, the property attached may be sold on execution, as in other cases.

§ 18. If either party is dissatisfied with a judgment rendered in a justice's court, he may have the cause removed to the court of common pleas of the county. In cases wherein the judgment is rendered for a debt not exceeding twenty-five dollars, the removal is made by writ of *certiorari*. When a cause is removed in this manner, the witnesses are not required to attend the trial in the higher court. The substance of the testimony and proceedings before the justice, is produced before the court, and upon this the judges give judgment, as the right of the case may appear. They decide the judgment of the lower court to be correct; they are said to *affirm* such judgment; but if they find wrong, they *reverse* it.

§ 19. When the debt or damages on which judgment has been rendered, exceed twenty-five dollars, the removal may be made by *appeal*. In such case, the whole cause is moved; the witnesses must again give their testimony; and all the facts are submitted for a rehearing. If the issue joined before the justice was an issue of law, the cause is decided by the judges; if the issue was upon a question of fact, it is tried by a jury.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Courts of Common Pleas, and General Sessions of the Peace, Circuit Courts, and Courts of Oyer and Terminer.

§ 1. THERE is in each county a court of common pleas, consisting of a first judge and four associate judges; all

as served? § 17. If the defendant does not appear at trial, what? § 18. What court are causes removed from a justice's court? By what process when the debt is not over \$25? What is meant by affirming and reversing a judgment? § 19. By what process is a cause removed when the debt exceeds \$25? State the difference between the two modes of trial, *certiorari* and *appeal*.

§ 1. Of how many judges does a court of common pleas consist? E

whom are appointed by the governor and senate, for five years. Any three of them may hold a court. This court usually sits two or three times in a year, and holds about a week.

§ 2. Suits in which more than \$50 are claimed may be, and when more than \$100 are claimed they must be, prosecuted in a higher court than a justices' court; and they may be commenced either in the supreme court, or in the court of common pleas. This court has power to grant new trials, and to try appeals from justices' courts. Removals of causes from this court are made to the supreme court. It has a jury to try issues of fact.

§ 3. The court of *general sessions of the peace* is held by the judges who hold the court of common pleas, and at the same time. Any three of the judges of the county courts may hold this court; and when a sufficient number of judges do not appear, then one or more justices of the peace are to be associated with the judge or judges attending; but there must be at least one judge present.

§ 4. The difference between these two courts appears to be principally this: the court of common pleas tries *civil* causes only, whereas it is the business of the court of *general sessions* to try and punish all *crimes and misdemeanors* committed in the county, except such as are punishable with death or imprisonment for life. It also examines the case of persons imprisoned in the county jail, and in certain cases discharges them; and does sundry other acts required by the laws of the state.

§ 5. This court has two juries. Its jury to try and determine facts is the same as that of the court of common pleas, and consists of the same persons. It has also a *grand jury*, by which it inquires of all crimes and misdemeanors committed and triable in the county; and tries such as it has power to try, and sends all indictments for offences which it has not power to try, to the next court of oyer and terminer and jail delivery, for trial. All courts having cognizance of

are they appointed; and for what term? How often and how long does it usually sit? § 2. Sums of what amount may be prosecuted in this court? What powers has it? § 3. What judges constitute the court of general sessions of the peace? When must justices sit in this court? § 4. What is the difference between this court and the court of common pleas? § 5.

crimes have grand juries. The duties of grand jurors also the manner of obtaining both grand and petit juries, described in a subsequent chapter.

§ 6. *Circuit Courts.* Each of the eight senate districts which the state is divided, constitutes a circuit, in which there is a judge, called *circuit judge*, who holds, in each of the counties composing his circuit, at least two terms in a year. Circuit judges are appointed by the governor and senate, hold their offices during good behaviour, or until they attain the age of sixty years.

§ 7. This court has power to try all causes that are tried in courts of common pleas. It also tries issues joined in the supreme court, and returns its proceedings to the supreme court. This court has a jury.

§ 8. *Courts of oyer and terminer and jail delivery* are held in the several counties of a circuit, at the same time that the circuit courts are held, and are connected with these courts in the same manner as courts of general sessions are connected with courts of common pleas. A court of oyer and terminer is held by the circuit judge, associated with some of the county judges. A judge of the supreme court may have power to preside in this court, and to perform the duties of a circuit judge.

§ 9. A court of oyer and terminer, like a court of general sessions of the peace, has two juries: a grand jury to inquire of crimes committed in the county, and a jury to try the persons charged with crimes by the grand jury. This court has power to try all offences for which indictment is found by the grand jury of either court, including such as are punishable by death and imprisonment for life, which the court of general sessions cannot try.

§ 10. The *supreme court* consists of a chief justice and four justices, any one or more of whom may hold a court. They are appointed in the same manner, and hold their office for the same time as circuit judges. This court has jurisdiction

What is the business of its juries? § 6. How are circuit courts constituted? When, and how often are they held? How, and for what term, are the judges appointed? § 7. What are the powers of a circuit court? § 8. In whom is a court of oyer and terminer held? When, and where? § 9. How many juries has it? In what cases has it jurisdiction? § 10. How is the supreme court constituted? How, and for what term, are the judges appointed? What jurisdiction has it?

of all actions, civil and criminal, and power to revise the proceedings of every court of common law, except the court of errors.

CHAPTER XXV.

Court of Chancery; Court for the Correction of Errors and Trial of Impeachments.

§ 1. THE *court of chancery* is in its nature different from all other courts. It is sometimes called a *court of equity*; because it is the object of this court to enable persons to obtain what is right and equitable, when they cannot obtain the same in courts of common law. But they cannot resort to this court for justice for any sum less than \$100.

§ 2. In other courts a man is not allowed to be a witness for himself; but in this, the parties may be put on oath. In other courts, a person cannot be compelled to do what he has agreed to do; he can only be made to pay damages for not fulfilling his contract; but in a court of chancery a man may, in certain cases, be compelled to fulfil the contract itself.

§ 3. If a debtor has property held in trust for him by another; or has money, notes, or other obligations or debts owing to him; this court may compel him to discover and give up such property to satisfy an execution against him; and it may prevent persons from paying him such debts. It has power also to restrain banks and other corporations, and individuals, from doing fraudulent acts; to dissolve corporations, to stop proceedings at law, in certain cases; and to do many other things of a like nature, by way of relief, when it could not otherwise be had.

§ 4. But although these appear to be the objects for which this court was instituted, the powers and duties vested in and performed by the chancellor, are more numerous than those of any other judicial officer in the state. He has

§ 1. What is the nature of a court of chancery? § 2. State the difference between this court and others. § 3. Mention some unusual judicial acts done by this court. § 4. What other powers has it? § 5. In whom are its

certain powers in relation to lands and estates of idiots, lunatics, and habitual drunkards; in suits by heirs; to dissolve marriage contracts; besides other things which devolve upon no other judicial officer.

§ 5. The powers of the court of chancery are vested in the chancellor, who is appointed by the governor and holds his office during good behavior, or till the age of sixty years. This court has at least five terms in a year; two in Albany and two in New York.

§ 6. Each circuit judge is *vice-chancellor* in his circuit and exercises in many cases the powers and duties of a chancellor. In the first and eighth districts, a special *vice-chancellor* is appointed. The *vice-chancellors* cannot hear appeals, nor review or rehear the proceedings of the court, except in a few cases. Appeals from the judgments and proceedings of the *vice-chancellors* must be made to the chancellor, before they can be carried to a higher court. The *vice-chancellors* have four stated terms; and may, they may hold special terms.

§ 7. In a court of chancery, suits are not commenced by the service of a process, as in other courts. The plaintiff prepares a bill of complaint, or petition, which is filed with a *vice-chancellor*, and filed with the clerk of the court, who issues a subpoena, commanding the defendant to appear before the court on a day named. The pleadings of each party are served on the other through the clerk. If there are any witnesses, they are examined.

§ 8. There are numerous officers of this court. There are *clerks* of the chancellor's court, and of each of the *vice-chancellors'* courts, who are appointed by their respective courts; and in every county there are several *clerks of the court of chancery*, and *examiners in chancery*, appointed by the governor and senate, for three years; a *register*, *assistant register*, and *reporter*, appointed by the court of chancery; their offices during the pleasure of the court; *sergeants*, one to reside in Albany, and the other in New York.

powers vested? How and for what term is he appointed? § 5. What powers have the *vice-chancellors*? § 6. How are appeals commenced in this court? How do they proceed? § 7. Mention

§ 9. *Solicitors in chancery* are attorneys, who are licensed by the court to practise therein. They manage the pleadings, prepare questions for witnesses, and do every thing that is done in a cause where the party does not appear in person. Proceedings are had before an examiner, who transmits them, with the testimony, to the vice-chancellor for his decision. Masters in chancery perform certain duties by order of, and as assistants to, the chancellor; as stating accounts, estimating damages, selling land, taking affidavits, &c.

§ 10. *Court for the trial of impeachments and the correction of errors.* This court is composed of the president of the senate, the senators, the chancellor, and the justices of the supreme court, a majority of whom may act. The duties of this court in correcting errors, and its duties in trying impeachments, are very different.

§ 11. As a *court for the correction of errors*, it is the highest judicial court in the state; having power to correct and redress all errors in the court of chancery and supreme court. Thus the errors of a justice's court may be carried up through several courts, to the court of errors. Whether this court affirms or reverses the proceedings that come to it from the court of chancery or the supreme court, its judgment in the case is remitted to the court from which the alleged error was brought, to be carried into effect.

§ 12. When this court decides upon an appeal from a decree of the chancellor, he is not allowed to give his vote; nor have the justices of the supreme court a voice in affirming or reversing a judgment from that court; but both the chancellor and judges may give reasons for their judgment in their respective courts.

§ 13. *Trial of impeachment.* An *impeachment* is a charge against a public officer, for corrupt conduct in office. If some person should offer a member of the legislature a sum of money or some other advantage, to induce him to vote for or against a proposed law, and such member should so vote; this would be corrupt conduct, for which he might be

of this court. How, and for what term, is each appointed? § 9. Who are solicitors in chancery? What is their business? § 10. Of whom is the court for the trial of impeachments and the correction of errors composed? § 11. What powers or jurisdiction has it as court of errors? § 12. In what cases may not the chancellor and judges vote? § 13. What is an impeach

impeached. And so any officer who, from bad motives, should do a wrong act in discharging the duties of his office, or should commit a crime, would be impeachable.. By the constitution, the power to impeach is given to the assembly. (Cons. Art. 5, § 2.)

§ 14. The mode of commencing a trial of this kind, as prescribed by law, is as follows: The assembly makes the charge, and delivers it to the president of the senate, who causes the court to be summoned. The accused is then brought before the court to answer the charge, and is entitled to counsel to assist him. (Cons. Art. 7, § 7.) When the issue is joined, the court appoints a time and place for trial. Before the trial commences, the clerk administers to the president of the senate, and the president to the other members, an oath truly to try and determine the charge, according to evidence.

§ 15. The trial is conducted as trials are in courts of justice. If two thirds of the members present concur in conviction, the accused is convicted; if not, he is acquitted. To *convict* is to prove and determine a person guilty of an offence. If the person is convicted, the court may remove him from office, or disqualify him from holding any office thereafter, in this state, or both remove and disqualify him but no other judgment can be pronounced by this court. But if the act committed by the offender is a crime, he may also be indicted, tried, and punished in a court of common law, as any other person.

CHAPTER XXVI.

General Provisions concerning Courts of Record.

§ 1. ALL courts higher than courts held by justices of the peace, are called courts of record. The clerk of each court is clerk of the court of common pleas and general sessions

ment? State a case. Who have power to impeach? § 14. How is trial of an impeachment commenced? § 15. How is it conducted? How many must agree to convict? What is the punishment?

§ 1 What courts are courts of record? How are clerks of courts a

of the peace, and of the circuit courts and court of oyer and terminer held in his county. Other courts appoint their own clerks.

§ 2. It is the duty of the sheriff of every county, to serve all processes issued by any court of record, which are to be served in his county, either by himself or his deputies. He cannot go out of the county to serve a civil process. If, therefore, a plaintiff lives in one county and the defendant in another, the process must be sent to the sheriff of the county in which the defendant resides, to be served on him. The process most used in commencing civil suits in courts of record, is called a *declaration*, because it declares the nature of the debt for which the suit is brought. It answers nearly to a summons in a justice's court.

§ 3. The sheriff also serves subpoenas for witnesses, and all executions issued by these courts for collecting the money on judgments against debtors residing in the county. He is required also to attend all the courts which may at any time be sitting in his county; and, with the assistance of a number of constables, previously summoned by him for the purpose, to keep peace and order, in court time, and to execute all orders of the court.

§ 4. *Juries.* Every county court, circuit court, and court of oyer and terminer, has a jury for the trial of issues of fact. An *issue of fact* is a case in which the *fact* is to be determined from evidence, whether one party is indebted to another or not; or the fact whether the person charged with crime is guilty or not guilty. It is called issue of fact to distinguish it from an *issue of law*, in which the question to be decided is, what is the *law* in the case, which is done by the court instead of the jury. This jury is usually called a *petit jury*, as distinguished from a *grand jury*.

§ 5. Juries in courts of record, are composed of a greater number of men than juries in justices' courts, and they are obtained in a different manner. Petit jurors are obtained thus: The supervisor, town clerk, and assessors of each town in the county, meet once in three years, on the first Monday

pointed? § 2. By whom are processes issued by these courts served? What if a defendant resides in another county? What is a declaration? § 3. What other duties does he perform? § 4. What courts have a jury? What is an issue of fact? What is this jury called? § 5. How is a list of

in July, for the purpose of making a list of the names suitable persons to serve as jurors, to be selected from the names on the assessment roll of the town. The persons whose names are taken, must be twenty-one and under sixty years of age; be assessed for personal property of their own, to the amount of \$250, or have a freehold estate in real property, of their own right or in the right of their wives, to the value \$150 and be of fair character, sound judgment, and well informed.

§ 6. The list of the names so selected, in each town, signed by the officers, or a majority of them, and within ten days is sent to the county clerk, and a copy of the list is filed with the town clerk. The county clerk writes the names on separate pieces of paper, and deposits them in a box kept for that purpose. Fourteen days before the holding of a court, the clerk, in presence of the sheriff and a county judge, draws from the box the names of thirty-six persons, to serve as jurors, and such additional number as may have been ordered.

§ 7. A list of the names drawn is handed to the sheriff who must, at least six days before the sitting of the court, summon the persons named in the list, to attend such court. Any person summoned as a juror, who neglects to attend, may be fined by the court, not exceeding twenty-five dollars. Of the whole number summoned, twelve sit on every trial; and all must agree in their verdict. They are in charge of the sheriff, as jurors in justices' courts are in charge of the constable.

§ 8. *Grand juries.* It is one of the excellencies of our government, that the liberty and lives, as well as the property, of the people, are protected by a constitutional provision securing to every person the right to be tried by a jury of his equals. (Cons. N. Y. art. 7, § 1, 2; Cons. U. S. amend. art. 6.) As the liberties and lives of men are more valuable than their property, they should be most safely guarded. Hence the constitution (Art. 7, § 7,) declares, that no person shall be put upon trial, without the previous judgment of a grand jury that he ought to be tried; and every court which has jurisdiction in cases of crime, has a grand jury.

the names of petit jurors obtained? What are their qualifications? § What is done with the list? How and when are the jurors drawn? § Who summons the jurors? How many sit on a trial? § 8. Where is the

§ 9. Grand jurors are thus obtained : The board of supervisors of the county, prepare a list of the names of three hundred men, to serve as grand jurors at the courts of oyer and terminer and general sessions, and deliver it to the county clerk. The list is disposed of, the names are drawn, and the jurors summoned, as in the case of petit jurors. The names of twenty-four men are drawn, but not more than twenty-three, nor less than sixteen, may be sworn on a grand jury.

§ 10. On the opening of the court, the jurors are sworn by a judge, to make a true presentment of all things given them in charge. The judge then gives them a charge, and appoints one of their number as foreman; and the jurors retire to a private apartment to attend to their duties.

§ 11. The jurors hear all complaints brought before them, against persons for crimes and breaches of the peace; and examine witnesses who appear to testify; and when it is requested, they have the assistance and advice of the district attorney. If they think the person complained of ought to be tried, they draw up a writing, in which they charge the person with the offence of which they think he is guilty. This is called an *indictment*. It is signed by the foreman, endorsed, "a true bill," and carried by the jury into court. At least twelve jurors must agree, or there is no indictment. If the person has not before been arrested, he may now be arrested, to be put upon trial. (See arrest and examination of offenders.)

§ 12. As all crimes are considered as committed against the peace and order of the community, the offender is complained of and tried in the name and in behalf of the people, who are the prosecuting party. The prosecution is managed by the district attorney, whose appointment and general duties have been mentioned.

vision made for grand juries? § 9. How are grand jurors obtained? What number constitutes a jury? § 10. What is said of swearing them, charging them, &c.? § 11. What is their business? What is an indictment? § 12. In whose name are offenders prosecuted?

CHAPTER XXVII.

Time of commencing Actions.

§ 1. THERE are times fixed by law, within which actions must be commenced, or they cannot be maintained. If a man has a right or title to *real estate*, he must bring his action within twenty years. If neither he, nor his ancestor, predecessor or grantor has had possession of the premises within twenty years before the suit is commenced, he cannot recover the estate.

§ 2. Actions brought for *debts* of most kinds, for trespass for injury to goods and chattels, for libels, and for certain other injuries to the persons or rights of individuals, must be commenced within *six years*. If the demand is an open or running account, the action may be commenced within six years from the date of the last item of the account of either party.

§ 3. Actions for assault and battery, and for false imprisonment, must be brought within *four years*. And actions for words spoken slandering another, must be brought within *two years*.

§ 4. Persons under age, or insane, or imprisoned on a charge of crime, or in execution under sentence of a criminal court, or married women, are not deemed capable of commencing suits, until their disability be removed. And they may commence suits within the time prescribed by law, after they shall have become capable.

§ 5. If a person entitled to bring an action, dies before the expiration of the time limited for commencing suits, his executors or administrators must bring the action within one year after his death. If a person departs from and resides out of the state, the time of his absence is not to be deemed or taken as any part of the time limited for the commencement of the action.

§ 6. Actions for collecting fines or penalties, must be brought

§ 1. Within what time must actions relating to real estate be commenced? § 2. In what cases within six years? § 3. What within four years? Two years? § 4. In what cases is the time extended? § 5. What is the time in certain cases of death? § 6. What for collecting fines and penalties?

within two years after the offence has been committed. If the penalty or forfeiture goes wholly or partly to the person prosecuting for the same, the action must commence within one year after the offence has been committed. If no private citizen brings the action within that time, the attorney-general of the state or the district attorney of the county, may, within two years after that year, commence the action in behalf of the people of the state. Actions to recover forfeitures to the party aggrieved, must commence within three years after the offence has been committed.

§ 7. If any action is commenced within the times mentioned, and if the defendant dies after such suit is brought, and before judgment is obtained against him, the plaintiff may commence a new suit against the heirs, executors, or administrators of the defendant, within one year after his death. And if an action commenced abates by reason of the death of a plaintiff, his executors or administrators may commence a new suit within one year after his death.

§ 8. There are sundry other provisions relating to the commencement of suits, and some exceptions to the law stated, for a knowledge of which reference must be had to the statutes of the state.

§ 9. A judgment rendered in any court within the United States, and remaining unpaid for twenty years, cannot, after that time be collected, unless there has been a part payment, or a written acknowledgement of indebtedness, within that time. And a right of action on a sealed instrument will expire at the end of twenty years, unless a part payment, or a written acknowledgement of indebtedness, be proved to have been made within that time.

§ 7. What is to be done when persons die after an action has been commenced? § 9. What is provided respecting judgments and sealed instruments?

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Of Rights.—The Right of Property; Title to Real

§ 1. IN the foregoing chapters we have given a general description of the government of the state of New-York; we have seen how its important affairs are conducted; how the several departments, legislative, executive, and judiciary are organized; and what are the powers and duties of the different classes of officers in these departments. We have seen in all this, how well our government is adapted to secure to the people the free exercise and enjoyment of their rights.

§ 2. But it is not enough to know *how* the laws are made and administered: it behooves every citizen to know the laws are by which he is governed. Every member of the community has rights; and he ought to know what they are, and how they are protected. He has also certain duties to perform, which he ought to understand. I shall therefore proceed to give an abstract of those laws which define rights, and prescribe the duties of our citizens, in their civil and domestic relations.

§ 3. The rights of citizens are either rights of person, or rights of property. By the rights of person, or personal rights, we mean the right to be free to think, speak, and act as we please, and the right to be secure from injury to our bodies or persons, and our good names. The right of property is the right to acquire, hold, and enjoy property. All rights may therefore be considered as being intended to secure either the one or the other of these classes of rights.

§ 4. The rights of citizens are secured by laws. These laws are, first, *statute laws*, the laws enacted by the legislative making power of the state, called also the *written law*, always written or printed; and secondly, the *common law*, which consists of rules that have become binding by long usage and established custom. The common law is

§ 1. What has been treated of in the former chapters? § 2. Our duty to understand our rights and duties? Why? § 3. What are rights of property? § 4. By what laws are our rights secured?

country is the same as that of England, having been introduced and established here while the people were subject to that country; and it is still considered the law in all cases where no law has been made to the contrary.

§ 5. Every citizen of the United States may hold lands within this state, and take the same by descent, devise, or purchase. To take land by descent, is to obtain it by inheritance. When a person dying, makes no previous disposal of his property, it falls, or *descends*, by right, to his children or other relatives: hence they are said to become heirs to the property by *descent*.

§ 6. But a person may direct his property to be given, after his death, to whomsoever he pleases. This is called devising property, or bequeathing it; and the person receiving the property is said to have acquired it by *devise*. And if a person pays for property an equivalent in money or some other property, he would have it by *purchase*.

§ 7. But though every citizen of the United States may hold real estate, and convey it to others, the like privilege is not enjoyed by all *aliens*. By the common law, aliens cannot hold and convey real property. In this state, however, a law has been enacted, by which an alien may make a deposition or oath, in writing, before any officer who is authorized to take proof of deeds, that he resides and intends to reside in the United States, and to become a citizen as soon as he can be naturalized; and when this deposition, certified by such officer, shall have been filed and recorded by the secretary of state, such alien may take and hold real estate, as any citizen of this state, to himself and his heirs forever.

§ 8. It is provided, also, that the alien may, for six years, sell, assign, and devise such estate, and no longer, until he becomes naturalized. But he cannot in any case lease or demise his real estate, before he is naturalized. If he shall die at any time within the six years, without making a will, his heirs take by descent, and hold the property as if he had been a citizen.

§ 9. *Title to real property by descent.* The laws of this

them. § 5. In what different ways may titles to lands be acquired? How is title acquired by descent? § 6. How by devise? By purchase? § 7. Can all aliens hold and convey real estate? How may they acquire the right to take and hold it? What right has he to convey it? § 9. Who are

state prescribe the order in which the property of intestates descends to their heirs. A *testament*, or will, is a written instrument, in which a person declares his *will* concerning the disposal of his property, after his death. The person making a will is called *testator*: hence, a person dying without making a will or testament, is called an *intestate*.

§ 10. The property of an intestate descends, first, to his lineal descendants, that is, persons descending in a direct line, as from parents to children, and from children to grandchildren. The lineal descendant most nearly related to the intestate, however distant the relation may be, takes the property.

§ 11. If any children of an intestate are dead, and any are living, the inheritance descends to the children living and to the descendants of the children dead; so that each child living shall receive such share as he would receive if all were living, and the children of those who are dead such share as the parents would receive if living. To make this plain: suppose an intestate to have had three sons, one of whom is dead, but has left children. In this case, each of the sons living would share one third of the property, and the children of the other son would have the remaining third.

§ 12. If an intestate dies without lawful descendants, and leaves a father, the inheritance goes to the father. If, however, the inheritance came to the intestate on the part of the mother, it does not go to the father while the mother is living; and after her death he holds it only during his life, and then it goes to the brothers and sisters of the intestate and their descendants, if he has any; but if not, it descends to the father in fee; that is, it becomes his in his own right, and may descend to his heirs.

§ 13. If the intestate has neither descendants nor father, or has not a father who is entitled to take the inheritance but leaves a mother, the inheritance goes to the mother during her life, and after her death to the brothers and sisters of the intestate and their descendants, if he has any; but if not, it descends to the mother in fee.

intestates? Define testament or will. Who is a testator? § 10. To whom first does property descend? § 11. How, when any children of an intestate are dead? § 12. How when he has no lawful descendants? § 13. What

§ 14. In case there is neither father nor mother, or none that can lawfully inherit the estate, it descends to the living brothers and sisters of the intestate, and the descendants of those that are dead. If he has neither father nor mother, nor brothers and sisters or their descendants, the estate, if it came to him on the part of his father, goes to his father's brothers and sisters and their descendants, if any ; but if not, then to the mother's brothers and sisters and their descendants.

§ 15. If the intestate has neither father nor mother, nor brothers and sisters, or their descendants, and the estate came to him on the part of the mother, it descends first to the mother's brothers and sisters and their descendants ; but if the inheritance came not on the part of either father or mother of the intestate, it descends equally to the brothers and sisters of both his father and mother.

CHAPTER XXIX.

Of the Proof and Recording of Deeds and Mortgages.

§ 1. EVERY person capable of holding real property, may also dispose of and convey his right or interest in such property to another person. To *convey* here means to transfer, or pass over to others, the right or ownership of property, so that they shall have the same interest in it as the person conveying it had before he conveyed it. Hence, the writing by which a right is thus transferred, is called a *conveyance* ; but more frequently the instrument by which a title to land is conveyed, is called *deed*.

§ 2. A purchaser of land could not securely hold it without a deed ; because a person's deed is the only lawful evidence of his being the true owner. If a person should buy

he has neither descendants nor father ? § 14. When he has neither descendants, nor father nor mother ? § 15. How when there are neither brothers nor sisters or their descendants ?

§ 1. Who may convey real estate ? What is it to convey ? What is an instrument of conveyance called ? § 2. What is the use of a deed ? § 3.

a farm without taking a deed of the seller, the seller might dispose of it to a second purchaser; and if he should give him a deed, such second purchaser, having a deed to show that he had bought the farm, might dispossess the first purchaser.

§ 3. Whenever, therefore, any real estate is to pass from one to another, the seller gives the buyer a deed. The deed states the names of the parties, the sum paid, the place where the land is situated, its boundaries, and the number of acres it contains. And as evidence of the sale, the seller affixes his name and seal to the instrument. This is generally done in the presence of one or more persons, who subscribe their names as witnesses; so that in case of dispute, the purchaser may know by whom to prove that the deed was executed by the person whose name it bears.

§ 4. But when a deed has been thus executed, the purchaser is not yet safe, unless he has had it recorded in the office of the clerk of the county in which the land lies. If it should be conveyed by the seller to a second purchaser who should get his deed recorded first, such purchaser would hold the land.

§ 5. Before a conveyance is recorded, the person executing it must acknowledge, before a proper officer, that he executes the conveyance; and the officer must certify in writing on the back or margin of the instrument, that the person did so acknowledge. All judges of courts, and justices of the peace, may take acknowledgments. In some of the large cities there are other persons specially appointed, called commissioners of deeds, who also may take acknowledgments. Every deed duly acknowledged and delivered to the county clerk to be recorded, is, with the acknowledgment, copied in length, word for word, in a book provided for that purpose.

§ 6. Lands are also conveyed by mortgage. A mortgage is a writing which conveys to another person a right to property as security for the payment of a debt, and is to have force or effect when the debt is paid. A mortgage conveys land in the same manner as a deed; but a condition is added

What does a deed contain? How is it executed? § 4. What must be done with the deed? Why? § 5. What is required before a conveyance is recorded? How is it proved or acknowledged? § 6. Describe the

stating, that if the debt for which the land is pledged shall be paid by a certain day, the instrument shall no longer have effect.

§ 7. When land is sold, and any part of the purchase money is to be paid at a future day, the seller usually conveys the land by deed to the purchaser ; and the purchaser executes a mortgage to the seller, pledging the land as security for the payment of the money remaining unpaid. A mortgage also contains a condition, that if the money shall not be paid according to the agreement, the mortgagee, or person holding the mortgage, may sell the land to raise the money due ; but if he sells it for more than that amount, the overplus must be paid to the mortgager.

§ 8. A wife must join with her husband in conveying land, by signing the deed with him ; otherwise, if the husband should die, his widow would have a right to one third part of the estate during her life. This portion of a widow, thus retained, is called *dower*. It is common, therefore, for the wife also to sign the deed ; and she must also acknowledge, before the officer taking the acknowledgment, and apart from her husband, that she signed the deed freely and without compulsion of her husband.

§ 9. When the debt secured by a mortgage on real estate has been paid, the mortgage is discharged thus : The person holding the mortgage, certifies in writing that the debt has been paid, and the certificate is acknowledged or proved, as conveyances are in order to be recorded, and presented to the clerk, who records such certificate and the proof or acknowledgment thereof. The mortgage is then discharged.

re of a mortgage ? § 7. In what cases are mortgages given by a purchaser land ? What condition does it contain ? § 8. Why must a wife sign a conveyance with her husband ? What is this right of a widow called ? How and what must she acknowledge ? § 9. When and how is a mortgage cancelled or discharged ?

CHAPTER XXX.

Of Leases ; and the Rights of Landlord and Tenant.

§ 1. To *lease* means to let, but generally to let real estate to another for rent or reward. The word *demise* is often used instead of lease. The landlord, or person leasing the estate, is called lessor ; and the tenant, or person to whom the land is leased, is called lessee.

§ 2. A lease of real estate, or a contract for leasing, for a longer term than one year, in order to be valid or binding, must be in writing. Leases for a term longer than three years, must be proved and recorded as deeds and mortgages ; and if for life, they must be sealed. These provisions do not extend to leases for years, or for life or lives, in the counties of Albany, Ulster, Sullivan, Herkimer, Dutchess, Columbia, Delaware and Schenectady.

§ 3. If a tenant keeps possession of premises beyond the term for which he hired them, or after he has lost his right to hold them, he is called a *tenant at will*, or by sufferance because the continuance of his possession depends upon the will or pleasure of the landlord. If such tenant does not quit the premises after having had one month's due notice the landlord may take and hold possession, provided he can do so without force or violence ; or he may bring an action of ejectment for the recovery of possession ; or he may proceed lawfully to remove the tenant.

§ 4. If a tenant shall give notice of his intention to quit and shall not quit at the time specified in such notice, he will be liable to pay double rent for the time he shall thereafter continue in possession.

§ 5. When rent is due to a landlord, he is not obliged to sue for it as for ordinary debts ; he has a right to seize the goods and chattels on the premises, in possession of the

§ 1. Define the words lease, demise, lessor, and lessee. § 2. What leases must be in writing ? What leases recorded ? Sealed ? What counties excepted ? § 3. What is a tenant at will ? What notice to the tenant entitles the landlord to the premises ? § 4. In what case is a tenant liable for double rent ? § 5. How may a landlord obtain his rent without

tenant, and sell them for the rent due. This is called *distressing*, or *distress*.

§ 6. The law declares what property may, and what may not, be taken for rent. All goods and personal chattels may be distrained, except such as the law exempts from execution. Things annexed to the freehold for the purpose of trade or manufacture, and not fixed into the wall of the building so as to be necessary to its support; and grain, grass, or roots, whether growing or gathered, and remaining on the land, are liable to distress for rent.

§ 7. But property deposited with, or hired or lent to a tenant, with the consent of the landlord, cannot be distrained; nor the property of boarders; nor the property of others which accidentally strays on the premises, or is deposited with a tavern-keeper, or the keeper of a warehouse, in the usual course of business, or deposited with any person to be repaired or manufactured. Beasts of the plough, sheep, and implements of a man's trade, cannot be taken if they are in actual use at the time, and so long as other property can be found.

§ 8. The goods and chattels of a tenant may be distrained after they have been removed from the premises. If rent is due at the time of the removal of the goods, or shall become due within thirty days thereafter, the goods must be taken within the thirty days after their removal. But if no rent is due or shall become due within that time, the goods may be seized at any time within thirty days after the rent shall become due, if the seizure shall be made within six months after the removal.

§ 9. For removing, or assisting in removing goods from leased premises to avoid the payment of rent, or for concealing property so removed, the person so doing shall forfeit to the landlord double the value of the goods removed or concealed.

§ 10. If a tenant or lessee holds over after the expiration of his term, without permission of the landlord; or where

ing for it? § 6. What property may be distrained for rent? § 7. What property may not be taken? § 8. Can goods be distrained after they have been removed from the premises? In what case must it be done within thirty days after removal? When may it be done within six months? § 9. For fraudulently removing property, what is forfeited? § 10. In

he holds over without such permission, after rent is due remains unpaid, and the rent cannot be obtained by distress of goods, the tenant may be removed by a judge of county courts, or by any mayor or recorder of a city.

§ 11. If a tenant deserts the premises without leaving them any goods to satisfy arrears of rent, a justice of peace has power to put a landlord into possession of premises.

§ 12. If goods liable to distress for rent, are levied by execution, the landlord holds a right in them to amount of one year's rent due; and if the goods are sold in virtue of the execution, such year's rent must first be out of the money received for the goods sold.

§ 13. A tenant is held to pay the rent for the premises, even though they have been destroyed, or though he has been by any other misfortune deprived of the use or enjoyment of them.

§ 14. Distress for rent must be made by a sheriff, deputy, or by a constable or marshal of the town or city in which the goods are, who shall conduct the process throughout. If a landlord has sued for rent due, and obtained a judgment, he has no right to distrain for the same.

§ 15. If a half year's rent or more is in arrear, and sufficient distress can be found on the premises to satisfy the rent due, if the landlord has a right by law to re-enter, he may bring an action of ejectment, to recover possession of the premises. But at any time within six months after possession has been taken by the landlord, the tenant shall be again entitled to the same, by paying the costs of the action and the rent due.

What case may a tenant be removed by a judge or other officer? When may a justice give a landlord possession? § 12. What is the landlord's right when goods are taken by execution? § 13. What happens if the premises are destroyed? § 14. By what officers must distress be made? § 15. When a half year's rent or more is in arrear, and no distress can be found, what right has each party?

CHAPTER XXXI.

Of Wills and Testaments.

§ 1. REAL estate may be given and bequeathed by a last Will and Testament, by all persons of sound mind, and of the age of twenty-one years, except married women; and personal estate may be so bequeathed by every male person over eighteen years, and by every unmarried female over sixteen years.

§ 2. A will must be subscribed by at least two attending witnesses, in whose presence the testator must subscribe the will, or acknowledge that he subscribed it, and declare it to be his last will and testament. The places of residence of the witnesses must also be written opposite to their names; and any person who shall sign the testator's name by his direction, must write his own name, as witness to the will. A will thus made is valid, unless revoked or altered by a later will or writing, executed in the same manner; and the will of an unmarried woman is revoked by her subsequent marriage.

§ 3. If a testator, after making his will, has a child born for which no provision is made, nor which is in any way mentioned in the will, the child is entitled to such portion of the estate as it would receive if the father had died intestate.

§ 4. After the death of a testator who has bequeathed *real estate*, any executor, or any person interested in the estate, may have the will proved, which is to be done before the surrogate. (See Chap. 20.) An *executor* is a person named in the will of a testator, or otherwise appointed, to see the will carried into effect. The person intending to apply for the proof of a will, must first give notice of his intention to the heirs; and if any of the heirs are minors, notice must be given to their guardian; and if they have no guardian the surrogate must appoint one. If it shall appear to the surrogate, upon the proof taken, that the will was duly exe-

§ 1. Who may give and bequeath real estate? And who personal estate?
 2. How is a will made? How may it be altered or revoked? What is
 revoke? § 3. What right has an after-born child? § 4. Who may have a
 will proved? What is an executor? What must be done in order to get

cuted, he records the will and the proofs and examination taken in a book.

§ 5. When a will of *personal estate* is to be proved, *the* widow and next of kin must be cited to attend the probate. And when applied to by any person interested, the surrogate issues a citation to the person having custody of the will, requiring him to produce it at the appointed time, to be proved. The person refusing so to do, may be committed to jail until he shall produce it.

§ 6. At the expiration of thirty days after a will of personal estate has been proved, the surrogate issues letters testamentary, to the persons named therein as executors, if within that time no person interested in the estate has filed objections with the surrogate, against granting such letters. *Letters testamentary* give to executors the right and authority to act. *Letters of administration* give like authority to persons whom the surrogate appoints, in case no will has been made; which persons are called *administrators* instead of executors.

§ 7. If all the persons named in a will as executors refuse, or are not by law qualified to serve, letters testamentary shall issue, and administration with the will annexed shall be granted, to some of the legatees. A *legatee* is a person to whom property is bequeathed by will. If there is no legatee, or none who will serve, the letters are granted to the relatives of the deceased, in the same order and manner as letters of administration in cases of persons dying intestate.

§ 8. If a person dies intestate, the fact of his so dying must be proved, to the satisfaction of the surrogate, who grants letters of administration to the relatives of the deceased who are entitled to succeed to his personal estate, in the following order: First, to the widow; second, to the children; third, to the father; fourth, to the brothers; fifth to the sisters; sixth, to the grand children; seventh, to any other next of kin entitled to any share of the estate.

§ 9. *Disposal of the property.* It is the duty of executors

a will proved? § 5. What in case of a will of personal estate? After proof of such will, what does the surrogate do? What are letters testamentary? Letters of administration? § 7. What if the executors named in a will refuse to serve? What is a legatee? What if there is no legatee to serve? § 8. What if a person dies intestate? In what order are letters of

Administrators, with the aid of two *appraisers* appointed by the surrogate, to take an inventory of all the goods, chattels, notes, bonds, and other securities and property other than real estate; and the appraisers estimate and appraise the property.

9. If the deceased leaves a widow and minor children, and articles of household utensils, books belonging to the family library to the amount of fifty dollars, clothing, and undry other necessary articles, are to remain in possession of the widow while she continues to live with and support the children. Such articles are to be included in the inventory, but not to be appraised.

When a widow ceases to provide for the children, she may retain as her own, her wearing apparel, her ornaments, her bed and bedding; and the other articles exempted from the inventory belong to the children. If there is a widow, but no children, the articles exempted belong to the widow.

If the debts against the deceased, and the legacies bequeathed by him, cannot be paid without a sale of his real property, the executors or administrators may sell as much of it as may be necessary to pay the debts and legacies. If they discover, after filing the inventory, that the personal estate is not sufficient to pay the debts, they may, at any time within three years after the granting of their letters, apply to the surrogate for authority to mortgage, or sell so much of the real estate of the deceased as may be necessary to pay his debts.

10. All money received from the sale of real estate, shall be paid to the surrogate, who first pays the expenses of the sale and next satisfies the widow's claim of dower, by giving her a part one-third of the money, and securing to her an equal interest during her life; unless she shall consent to take a certain sum in lieu of her dower. If the remainder is sufficient to pay all the debts of the deceased; it is to be paid by the surrogate among the creditors, in proportion

to the claims of the creditors. § 9. By whom is the inventory of the personal property made? § 10. In what case are certain articles not included? What articles? § 11. When the widow ceases to provide for the children, what? If there is a widow and no children, what? § 12. In what case must personal property be sold? If personal property is insufficient to pay debts, what? § 13. How is money received from the sale of

to their respective debts ; but if the proceeds of the sale be more than sufficient to pay all debts and expenses, the surplus is distributed among the heirs and devisees, in proportion to the right of each in the premises sold.

§ 14. Public administrators are persons who take charge of the effects of persons dying intestate, and leaving no widow or relative who is entitled or competent to take letters of administration. The county treasurer of every county is an administrator in his county, and has authority to collect and take charge of the assets of every such intestate, when the amount to one hundred dollars or more. In the city of New York, a public administrator is appointed by the common council.

CHAPTER XXXII.

Of the Domestic Relations.—Of Marriage, and the Relations of Husband and Wife ; Parent and Child ; Guardian and Ward.

§ 1. THE marriage relation is a most important one. In improper marriages many persons are rendered unhappy in life ; and sometimes the peace of whole families is destroyed. Some law, therefore, is necessary to prevent such marriages as far as possible, by declaring what kinds of marriages are valid and what kinds may not be contracted.

§ 2. To make a marriage contract binding, several things are necessary: (1.) Persons must have sufficient understanding to transact the common business of life : hence lunatics and idiots cannot bind themselves in marriage.

§ 3. (2.) The parties must not be nearly related to each other. Marriage between parents and children, including grand parents and grand children of every degree, and between brothers and sisters, of the half as well as whole blood, are not binding. Persons thus related to each other, and cohabiting together as husband and wife, whether married

real estate distributed ? § 14. Who are public administrators ?

§ 2. Can persons of unsound minds lawfully marry ? § 3. What is

not, are deemed guilty of *incest*, which is a crime punishable by imprisonment in a state prison.

§ 4. (3.) Persons must be of sufficient age. There is no law enacted in this state fixing the age at which parties may contract marriage. In such case the common law must govern, which allows males to contract marriage at the age of fourteen years, and females at the age of twelve. But though marriages are considered lawful at these ages, it must not be supposed that they ought to be contracted by persons so young. They are merely allowed, because, when they are once formed, though unwisely, the evil of separating the parties may be greater than it would be to suffer them to be united.

§ 5. (4.) Persons must act freely. If the consent of either party has been obtained by force or by fraud, the marriage may be declared void.

§ 6. (5.) A person having a wife or husband living, cannot lawfully contract a second marriage, except when the former wife or husband has been sentenced to imprisonment for life; or has been absent for five years together, and the party remarrying not knowing that the absent party was living within that time; or when the former marriage has been lawfully annulled or dissolved. But if a marriage has been dissolved for the cause of adultery, the guilty party may not re-marry.

§ 7. Marriages forbidden by the preceding provisions are void, and may be so declared by the chancellor, who has power also to decree divorces, or dissolve or annul marriage contracts, in certain other cases. And he may also decree separations or divorces, for a limited time or forever, when a husband cruelly treats his wife, or so conducts towards her as to render it unsafe for her to cohabit with him, or abandons her, or refuses to provide for her.

§ 8. Marriage may be solemnized, that is, the marriage ceremony may be administered, by ministers of the gospel, judges of county courts, and justices of the peace; and by

relatives may not marry each other? What is incest? § 4. What is the age of consent, or in other words at what age may persons lawfully marry? § 5. What is said of a forced or fraudulent marriage? § 6. In what cases may a person marry a second time while the former wife or husband is living? § 7. Who declares forbidden marriages void? In what cases does he decree separations or divorces? § 8. Are marriages lawful unless sol-

mayors, recorders, and aldermen of cities. But a simple consent of the parties, declared before witnesses, renders marriage lawful.

§ 9. By marriage the husband and wife become, in law one person. The husband acquires a right to the property of the wife which she had before marriage. He has a right to the use of her property in lands, or real estate, during his life time, and is entitled to the rents and profits thereof; but he cannot dispose of the property unless she joins with him in the deed. But her chattels real, which are leases of land for years, and all her other personal estate, including debt due her by bond, note, or otherwise, when collected by him become his; and he may dispose of them as he pleases.

§ 10. As the husband acquires, by marriage, an interest in his wife's property, so he is obliged to pay her debts contracted before marriage: but if they are not recovered of the husband during the time he is united to her in marriage, he is no longer answerable for her debts.

§ 11. It is the duty of the husband to maintain his wife and he is bound to pay debts which she may contract for necessities, but for nothing more. And it seems to be the law that even if he forbids all persons to trust her, she can bind him for necessities, if they have become separate through fault on his part. If they part by consent, and he secures to her a separate maintenance, and pays it according to agreement, he is not answerable even for necessities.

§ 12. The husband and wife cannot be witnesses for or against each other in a court of justice; but any declaration which a wife makes when acting as the agent of her husband, may be taken as evidence against him.

§ 13. *Parent and child.* It is the natural and reasonable duty of parents to maintain and educate their children until they become of suitable age to provide for themselves. The age at which the obligations of parents, as guardians of their children, end, is twenty-one years, which is called the age of *majority*, when persons are said to be *of age*. Hence, unde-

emized by ministers or magistrates? § 9. What right to a wife's real estate does a husband acquire by marriage? What right to her personal estate? § 10. How far is he liable for her debts? § 11. How far is he bound by her contracts? § 12. Can they be witnesses for or against each other? § 13. When do children become of age? § 14. Can children dispose

wenty-one they are in law called *infants*, or minors, and are said to be in a state of *minority*.

§ 14. As parents are bound to support their minor children, they have a right to their labor; and they may recover the money for the wages of their children, from any person employing them without their parents' consent. A parent is not bound to pay even for necessities sold to a child, unless a child had authority from the parent, or unless the parent neglected to provide for the child, or forced him from home by severe usage. And when a child is obliged to support himself, he is entitled to his own earnings.

§ 15. A second husband is not bound to support the children of his wife by a former husband. If, however, he receives such children into his family, he is liable to support them as his own.

§ 16. If a father dies before the child is of age, and does not, by will, appoint a guardian, the mother becomes the guardian of the child, and in some cases of his property also, until he arrives at the age of fourteen years, when he may choose a guardian for himself. When an infant becomes possessed of an estate in lands, if there is no father, the mother has the guardianship of the estate; and if there is neither father nor mother, then the nearest and eldest relative takes the guardianship of such estate.

§ 17. *Guardian and Ward.* The father is the natural guardian of a child, and after his death, the mother. But a father may by his deed, or last will, dispose of the custody and tuition of a minor child, while under twenty-one years, to another person, who then has the care and management of the minor's personal estate, and of the profits of his real estate, during the time for which the disposal was made. Such person is then guardian, and the child is called *ward*.

§ 18. If the father does not by a deed or by will appoint a guardian for a minor child, the child may, if fourteen years of age, apply to the surrogate for the appointment of

their own labor? How far is a parent liable for his children's contracts? § 15. How far a second husband for his wife's children? § 16. If a father dies who is guardian of the children? When there is neither father nor mother, who becomes guardian of children's real estate? § 17. How may a father dispose of the custody of a minor child? Who is then called ward? § 18. If the father does not so appoint a guardian, what?

a guardian; and if the child is under fourteen years, any relative or other person may so apply for a guardian, until the minor shall arrive at the age of fourteen, and until another shall be appointed. A guardian must give a bond with surety, that he will faithfully discharge the duties of guardian, and render a true account of all the property and money received and disposed of by him.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

Minors; Masters, Apprentices, and Servants.

§ 1. *Minors.* THE statutes of New-York do not declare how far minors may bind themselves by contract or agreement. In such case, the common law must determine. In general, a minor is not bound by a bargain which he may make; but if he agrees, after becoming of age, to fulfil a contract which he made while a minor, he must do so. And if he has no father or other guardian, he is bound to pay for articles actually necessary for him. But the person who trusts him must make inquiry; and if the minor has been properly supplied by his friends, the person trusting him cannot recover; nor can he in any case recover more than the actual value of the goods sold to the minor.

§ 2. But minors are responsible for the payment of fines; and they may be prosecuted and tried for acts of fraud and crime. It is not easy, however, to determine, from the practice of courts of law, in what particular cases a minor is or is not accountable for fraudulent acts. His age, and the circumstances in which he was placed, might be such as to free him from obligation; but an act of gross and palpable fraud, committed by an infant who has arrived at the age of discretion, would bind him to a contract.

§ 3. *Masters, apprentices, and servants.* By the laws of New-York, male infants, and unmarried females under eighteen years, may, of their own free will, bind themselves,

§ 1. Are minors bound by their bargains? In no case! § 2. Are they liable for fines? How in case of fraud and crime? § 3. For what time may minors bind themselves as apprentices and servants? By whose con-

in writing, to serve as apprentices or servants, in any trade or employment; males, until the age of twenty-one, and females, until the age of eighteen, or for a shorter time. A minor thus binding himself must have consent of the father; or if the father is dead, or disqualified by law, or neglects to provide for his family, then consent must be had of the mother; or if the mother is dead or disqualified, then of the guardian; or if there is no guardian, then of the overseers of the poor, or two justices of the peace, or a judge of the county court.

§ 4. Children that have become chargeable to the town or county for their support, may be so bound out by the overseers of the poor, or by the county superintendents of the poor; and executors who have been directed by the last will of a father to bring up a child to some trade or calling, may bind the child to such service. And the law properly requires, that the person to whom a child is bound by the superintendents or overseers of the poor, shall agree to cause the child to be taught to read and write, and if a male, to be instructed in the general rules of arithmetic, and at the end of the service, to give such apprentice a new bible.

§ 5. Apprentices who wilfully absent themselves from service without leave of their master, may be compelled to serve double the time of absence, unless they pay for the injury sustained by such absence; and for ill behavior, or refusal to work, they may be tried by any two justices of the peace of the county, and imprisoned; or the justices may discharge the offender from his service, and the master from his obligation.

§ 6. A master may correct his apprentice with moderation, for misbehavior. He is liable to pay for necessaries for his apprentice, and for medical attendance; but he is not so liable in the case of hired servants.

§ 7. There is, in this state, no statute law defining the rights and obligations of hired servants and the persons employing them. Both are obliged to fulfil their agreement. If a hired servant leaves the service of his employer,

ent? § 4. By whom are pauper children bound? In what case do executors bind out children? § 5. To what is an apprentice liable if he leaves his master? To what for ill behavior? § 6. What power has the master? for what is he liable? § 7. What if a hired servant does not serve out his

without good cause, before he has worked out the time for which he was hired, he cannot recover his wages. And for immoral conduct, wilful disobedience, or habitual neglect, he may be dismissed. On the other hand, ill usage, or any failure on the part of the employer to fulfil his engagement, releases the laborer from his service.

§ 8. How far a master is answerable for the acts of his hired servant, is not clear. As a general rule, however, the master is bound by contracts made, and liable for injuries done, by a servant actually engaged in the business of his master, whether the injury proceeds from negligence or from want of skill. But for an injury done by a wilful act of the servant, it is considered that the master is not liable.

§ 9. If the servant employs another to do his business, the master is liable for the injury done by the person so employed. But a servant is accountable to his master for a breach of trust, or for negligence in business, or for injuring another person in his master's business.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Of Fraudulent Conveyances; and of Contracts in General

§ 1. PROPERTY is sometimes fraudulently conveyed from one person to another. Debtors often put their property into the hands of others, to be kept from being taken to pay those whom they owe. With the same intent, property is frequently assigned to others, by way of mortgage, with the false pretence that the assignment is made for the security of a debt, when no such debt is honestly due; and when the property mortgaged is to remain in possession of the person conveying it, with the understanding that the mortgagee is never to take it.

§ 2. To prevent such fraudulent conveyances and sales

term? For what cause may he be dismissed? For what may he leave?
§ 8. In what cases are masters liable for acts of servants? § 9. If a servant employs another, what? For what is a servant accountable?

§ 1. How is property sometimes fraudulently conveyed? § 2. What

of property, the law declares, that all deeds of gift, and all transfers of goods and chattels, made by any person to secure them for his future use, shall be void, and shall not prevent them from being taken and sold to pay his debts. And to protect creditors against losses, the law also prescribes the manner in which sales and conveyances of property must be made, to be considered honestly done.

§ 3. Now as a sale or an assignment is more likely to be fraudulent when the property remains with the seller or assignor, than when the assignee takes it into his own possession, it has long been a settled principle of law, that if property assigned or sold continues with the person pledging or selling it, the transaction is to be deemed fraudulent, and the property may be taken by creditors.

§ 4. This principle of the common law has been in some measure changed, in this state. Our law establishes the same general principle, but provides, that if the person to whom a sale or an assignment is made, can make it appear that it has been done in good faith, and without any intent to hinder, delay or defraud creditors, he may hold the property, although it remains with the seller or assignor.

§ 5. But although this law affords security to the man who honestly takes an assignment of property for the security of a debt, yet the mortgager, having it still in his possession, might fraudulently sell it to a second purchaser, who would afterwards be compelled to give it up, and so suffer loss. To prevent this, the law requires, that any person to whom personal property is pledged, shall deliver the mortgage to the town clerk, to be filed and kept in his office; or where there is a county clerk's office in the town, the mortgage must be filed in such office; that any person wishing to know whether such property is under mortgage or not, may ascertain the fact at such office. And it is farther required, that the assignment be under seal, and renewed at the end of one year from its date, and from the date of each renewal.

§ 6. A contract for leasing land for a longer period than one year, or for the sale of land, or of any interest in land,

general provision of law has been made to prevent this? § 3. If property remains with the seller, what is to be supposed? § 4. What does the law of this state provide in such cases? § 5. How is a second purchaser in danger of loss? What law has been made to prevent this? § 6. How are

is declared to be void, unless the contract, or some note or memorandum thereof, expressing the consideration, be in writing, and subscribed by the party making the lease or sale, or by his lawfully authorized agent. By *consideration* is here meant the price, or any thing that is the cause or reason for which a person enters into an agreement. Thus the money paid or to be paid for a farm, is the consideration for which the seller grants it to the purchaser.

§ 7. In this state, an agreement which is not to be performed within a year from the time it is made; and a special promise to pay the debt or answer for the default of another person, must be in writing. And a contract for the sale of any goods, chattels, or things in action, for the price of fifty dollars or more, is void, without such writing, unless the buyer accepts and receives a part of the goods or of the evidences of them; or unless the buyer at the time pays some part of the purchase money.

§ 8. Much that relates to the nature of contracts is to be learned from the common law. As has been said, there must be some valuable consideration upon which a promise to do a thing is made; and there must be a mutual promise of both parties, to make a bargain binding; but the consideration may be something else than money or property; it is sufficient if it is any thing that is either a benefit to the party promising, or some loss or trouble to the party to whom the promise is made.

§ 9. A says to B, if you will deliver to me twenty bushels of wheat to-morrow, I will pay you twenty dollars for it. Now if B brings the wheat, A is not obliged to take it and pay the price offered, because B did not on his part promise to deliver it. But if B had so promised, A would be bound to fulfill, because B has fulfilled on his part. The consideration in the case is the promise of each; and the party that fails to fulfill, is liable to the other for the damage sustained.

§ 10. If you buy a horse to-day to be delivered to you

contracts for leasing land made binding? What is consideration in a contract? § 7. What other contracts must be in writing to be binding? How may an unwritten contract for fifty dollars be made binding? § 8. What consideration other than money makes a contract valid? § 9. Give an example. § 10. Which party runs the risk of accident to property? §

to-morrow, and the horse should die before delivery, the loss is yours. The risk of accident to property is, in such cases, with the buyer. A buyer becomes the *owner* of property as soon as the contract is completed; but he is not entitled to take it into his possession till he pays or tenders the price, unless he has bought on a credit.

§ 11. An agreement to do what is impossible to be done, or what is unlawful; or an agreement that is made under some threat or fear, is not binding. Idiots are not bound by their contracts; nor are lunatics bound by any agreement made while they are insane.

§ 12. A person cannot give to another a title to what he does not himself own. A man buying a stolen horse cannot hold him, but must give him up to the owner. The thief, having no lawful title to the horse, could give no title. And if the horse should be sold ever so often, the owner has a right to take him wherever he finds him, by proving him to be his; and each purchaser must look for redress to the person who sold him the property.

§ 13. Frauds are often committed in selling articles that are faulty or unsound. It is the general rule of law, that if the seller does not expressly warrant an article, or if there is no fraud on his part, the buyer must abide the loss if the article proves defective. But if the seller conceals the defect knowing it to exist, he is liable to make good the damage.

§ 14. There is much written in the books concerning contracts; but it is not easy to find a law to apply to every contract that may be made. A large portion of the lawsuits are caused by the failure of persons to fulfill their engagements. If all would practise and encourage honest dealing, and endeavor to be faithful in discharging their obligations, there would be little need of studying the law of contracts; and much money spent in lawsuits, and many unkind feelings between man and man, would be prevented.

What agreements are never binding? § 12. Can a man give a title to what is not lawfully his own? State a case? § 13. What is the law about warranting property? § 14. What is said about the law of contracts?

CHAPTER XXXV.

Of Principal and Factor, or Agent; and of Lien.

§ 1. A *principal* is one who employs another, as *agent*, to transact his business. A *factor* is an agent; but the word *factor* is generally understood to mean a *commercial agent*; that is, one who is employed by merchants residing in a distant place, to buy and sell, and transact business for them. Thus, country merchants send their wheat, pork, pot-ashes, and other country produce, and millers send their flour, to their agents in the city of New-York, to be disposed of. The owners of the property are called *principals*; their agents are factors, or, as they are perhaps more frequently called, *commission merchants*. As receivers of property consigned to them, they are also called *consignees*, and the persons who consign or commit to them their property, are *consignors*.

§ 2. For the accommodation of the principal, the factor sometimes pays him a part of the value of the produce before it is sold. This is called *advancing money*. But factors would seldom advance money without security. They have, therefore, by law, a claim on the property on which they advance the money; and they can hold it till they shall have been paid their charges against the owner. And as a factor does not always know who is the actual owner, the person in whose name the goods are shipped, is to be considered the owner.

§ 3. This claim which a factor has upon goods intrusted to him for sale, is called *lien*; and the factor may sell the goods, and retain out of the proceeds of the sale, what is due him; and the remainder he must pay to the principal, or owner.

§ 4. But a person cannot sell or pledge property committed to him for transportation or storage only; nor can a factor pledge goods intrusted to him for sale, as security for

§ 1. Define principal and factor. Who are consignees? Consignors?
 § 2. What is advancing money? How is a factor secured? § 3. What is
 his claim of a factor called? § 4. In what cases cannot a factor sell a

his own debts. A factor who disposes of any merchandise intrusted or consigned to him, and applies the avails to his own use, with intent to defraud the owner, may be punished by fine and imprisonment.

§ 5. How far, in ordinary business, a principal is bound by the acts of an agent, it is not easy to determine. As a general rule, however, a general agent, that is, one who transacts either all kinds of business for his employer, or business relating to some particular department, binds his employer or principal, by his acts, so long as he keeps within the general scope of his authority, even though he were expressly instructed not to do a particular act.

§ 6. But if an agent is employed for a special purpose, the principal is not bound by the act of the agent, if he passes the limits of his power. If I employ a man to go out and purchase a horse for me, without giving him authority to do any thing else, and if he buys a horse and a wagon, I am not bound to pay for the wagon, because the agent had power only to buy the horse.

§ 7. If an agent buys in his own name, he is himself liable; and although he does not disclose the name of the principal, the principal also is bound, if the goods come to his use, but not otherwise.

§ 8. A *lien*, as has been stated, is the claim of a factor or agent, upon property in his possession, as security for the payment of his charges. This right of lien extends to others than factors. It is intended also for the benefit of manufacturers and mechanics, and other persons carrying on business for the accommodation of the public.

§ 9. A merchant has a lien upon goods sold till the price is paid, if no credit has been stipulated for; and even when he agrees to give a credit, if the purchaser practises fraud in obtaining the goods, the seller may take them. These cases differ, however, from ordinary cases of lien, as the purchaser has not, in reality, acquired any lawful right to the property; and the merchant may dispose of the property as his own, which cannot be done in other cases.

ledge property? For what, and how, is he punishable? § 5. In what cases, generally, is a principal bound by the acts of his agent? § 6. How is the case of a special agency? § 7. How if an agent buys in his own name? § 8. Have others than factors the right of lien? § 9. What is a

§ 10. A shoemaker receiving leather to manufacture shoes, may retain the shoes until he is paid for the material; a tailor has a lien upon the garment made from another's cloth; a blacksmith upon the horse he shoes; an innkeeper upon the horse or goods of his guest; and common carriers upon the goods they transport. But they cannot retain property for any other debt; nor have they a right to use such property to satisfy their claim upon it. Whenever a person allows property to go out of his possession, he loses his lien.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Of Partnership; and of Bailment, or the Delivering, Carrying, Letting, &c., of Property.

§ 1. As much of the business of this country is done in partnership, it is necessary to learn what are the rights and responsibilities of partners. A *partnership* is the association of two or more persons for the purpose of carrying on a business, agreeing to divide the profits and bear the losses in certain proportions. Persons forming a partnership, contribute their money or capital. Sometimes one furnishes money and another does the labor. Or, perhaps no money is necessary, but each agrees to perform his share of the labor.

§ 2. All the members of a partnership are bound by the acts of any one of them, or by any contract which either of them may make. Although they agree to divide their profits and losses, either one of them is liable for all the debts of the partnership. If one of the partners buys property on his own account, for his individual use and benefit, he alone is liable; but though he thus buys it, if it be afterwards applied to the use of the partnership, all become liable.

§ 3. There are cases, however, when not all who share in the profits are responsible; as when a clerk or

said of a merchant's right of lien? § 10. What is said of a mechanic's or manufacturer's lien? Of an innkeeper's?

§ 1. What is a partnership? § 2. How far are partners jointly and severally liable? § 3. In what cases mentioned are not all liable who share in profits?

agree to receive a part of the profits as a compensation for his service or labor ; or when one receives, as rent, a part of the profits of a tannery, tavern or farm. In these cases, although the parties share in the profits, there is no partnership ; and the persons who buy the stock and other materials, and hire the labor necessary to carry on their respective trades, are alone responsible.

§ 4. One partner cannot bring a new partner into the firm, without the consent of all the others. If, therefore, a partner should desire to sell his interest to some other person, who is to take his place in the partnership, he cannot do so, unless all the partners consent to such sale.

§ 5. All the partners must unite in suing and being sued. Sometimes, however, there are secret or dormant partners, who conceal their names ; these may not join in an action as plaintiffs, but they may be sued when discovered to be partners.

§ 6. As each partner is liable for all the debts of the concern, so each may, in the name of the firm, in ordinary cases, assign over the effects and credits to pay the debts of the firm.

§ 7. Any partner may withdraw when he pleases, and dissolve the partnership, if no definite period has been agreed on for the partnership to continue ; but if, by the terms of agreement, it is to continue for a definite period, it cannot be dissolved before the expiration of the term, without the mutual consent of all the partners, except by the death or some other inability of one of them ; or by a decree of the court of chancery. When a partnership is dissolved by the withdrawal of any of the partners, notice of dissolution ought to be given, or such partners will be liable for debts contracted by those who continue the business.

§ 8. By a law of this state, a partnership may be formed by a number of persons, some of whom are to be responsible only to a limited amount, and their names are not to be used in the firm. But before a partnership of this kind can do business, a writing and certificate signed by the parties,

In what cases only can a partner sell his interest to a person not a partner ? § 5. Must all the partners join in suing and being sued ? § 6. What power has an individual partner to assign ? § 7. In what case can any partner withdraw, and dissolve the partnership ? § 8. What peculiar kind of part-

stating the terms of partnership and the amount for which the *special partners*, (as they are called) are to be responsible, must be registered in the county clerk's office; and terms of partnership must also be published in a newspaper for six weeks.

§ 9. In partnerships thus formed, called *limited partnerships*, the special partners become liable only to the amount mentioned in the terms of partnership. The other partners called *general partners*, whose names only are used, and who transact the business, are liable for all the debts contracted as in ordinary partnerships. If such partnership is to be dissolved by act of the parties, before the time expires which it was formed, notice of dissolution must be filed and recorded in the county clerk's office, and published in a county newspaper for four weeks prior to the dissolution.

§ 10. Another class of rights and responsibilities are those which arise from delivering and receiving property in trust to be kept or used, and re-delivered, according to agreement. Such delivery and receiving includes giving and taking goods to be kept for and without reward; in security of debt; borrowing and lending; letting for hire; carrying &c. These are comprehended in the word *bailment*, which is from *bail*, a French word, signifying to deliver.

§ 11. If a person takes goods to keep and to return them without reward, he must keep them with ordinary care, and if they receive injury, he will be liable to the bailor for damage; in other words, a bailee without reward is responsible only for gross neglect. The person with whom goods are deposited, is also called in law, *depository*. A depository may not use the goods taken into his care.

§ 12. A person who agrees to carry goods from place to place, or to do some other act or work upon or about them without recompense, must use due diligence in performing the work; he is responsible for gross neglect, if he undertakes and does the work amiss; but it is thought that agreeing to do, and not undertaking or doing at all, is

partnership may be formed in this state? How is it formed? § 8, 9. What are the special and which the general partners? If such partnership is dissolved by act of parties, what is necessary? § 10. The doing of what things is comprehended in the word bailment? § 11. For what is a person responsible if he takes goods to keep without reward? § 12. If he agrees

not liable for damage. Or if he has been strongly persuaded to do the act, only a fair exertion of his ability is required.

§ 13. A borrower is liable for damage, in case of slight neglect. If he applies the article borrowed to the use for which he borrows it, uses it carefully, does not allow another to use it, and returns it within the time for which it was borrowed, he is not liable.

§ 14. A person who receives goods in security for a debt or engagement, is liable for ordinary neglect. But if he bestows ordinary care upon the goods, and they should then be lost, he still has a claim upon the pawnor for the debt.

§ 15. When property is hired, that is, when something is to be paid for the use of an article, and it is injured by moderate usage, the owner bears the loss; but the hirer must not use it for any purpose but that for which it was hired, and he must return it promptly, or he is liable for damage.

§ 16. If an article is delivered, upon which work is to be bestowed, the work must be properly done. A manufacturer who receives your wool to make into cloth, or the tailor who takes cloth to make into a garment, must do the work well, or he is liable for damage. If the property should be lost or stolen, he is responsible for ordinary neglect.

§ 17. Innkeepers are, in general, responsible for all injuries to the goods and baggage of their guests, even for thefts. But for losses caused by unavoidable accident, or robbery, they are not liable.

§ 18. A common carrier, that is, one who carries goods for hire, as a common employment, is responsible to the owner even if robbed of the goods. But a person who occasionally carries goods for hire is not a common carrier, and is answerable only for ordinary neglect, unless he expressly takes the risk. A common carrier is one who holds himself out as ready to carry goods as a business, by land or by water, and is answerable for all losses, except in cases of public enemies, as in time of war, and in case of the act of God, as by lightning, storms, floods &c. Public carriers

to carry them without reward? § 13. How is a borrower made liable? § 14. For what is a pawnee liable? § 15. In what case is a hirer liable? § 16. State the liability of one who takes an article to do work upon? § 17. Of innkeepers? § 18. For what are common carriers answerable? Who are common carriers?

are responsible for the baggage of their passengers, though they advertise it as being at the risk of the owners.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Of Promissory Notes ; Bills of Exchange ; Interest.

§ 1. A PROMISSORY note is a writing by which a person promises to another a certain sum of money, for some value received by the promisor. The following is a form:

“AUBURN, July 1, 1843.

“Three months after date, I promise to pay to John Jones, “twenty dollars, for value received.

SAMUEL SMITH.”

§ 2. Notes may be bought and sold as other property. But a note drawn in the form here given would not so pass: or, as men say, it is not *negotiable*, because it is payable to John Jones only. The holder may sell it, but the buyer, if obliged to collect it by law, must sue it in the name and by authority of Jones; and if Smith has a demand against Jones, he may offset it against the note.

§ 3. Hence it is not safe to buy a note so written. Had the words, *or bearer*, been inserted after “John Jones,” the form would be that of a common negotiable note, which would be payable to any person holding it.

§ 4. Another way of making notes negotiable, though less practised, is to insert the words, *or order*, in the place of “or bearer;” but in this case, the promisee must indorse it by writing his name on the back of it. Such indorsement is in law considered as his order to the maker to pay it to another person; and then it may pass.

§ 5. It is usual to insert the words *value received*, as evidence that the note was given for some valuable consideration; for it will be recollected that contracts are not valid without some consideration. But these words are not

§ 1. What is a promissory note? State its form. § 2. When is a note called negotiable? How is a note sued when not negotiable? § 3. How must it be drawn to be negotiable? § 4. What is the effect of the words *order*, instead of *or bearer*? § 5. Are the words *value received* essen-

necessary to make the note good; for if the maker of the note can prove that no value was received, he can avoid the payment, even if these words are in the note.

§ 6. A note, after it has become due, is not negotiable as before due. It may be transferred, but the promisor may offset demands which he had against the promisee, the original holder, before he parted with it.

§ 7. Notes are sometimes made payable *on demand*. They are due immediately; and payment need not be demanded and refused before the holder can sue. So also, if no time of payment is mentioned in a note, it is due when given, and no demand of payment is necessary. But a note payable *at sight*, or at a specified time after sight, must be presented for payment before it can be sued.

§ 8. After a note has become due, the maker is allowed three days to pay, which are called *days of grace*. But if no time of payment is mentioned in the note, or if it is payable on demand, no grace is given. To bind the indorser of a note payable to order (see § 4,) payment must be demanded of the maker on the last day of grace, and refused, and the indorser notified the same day by the holder, or by a person sent for that purpose, that the note is not paid. If the parties do not reside in the same town, notice may be sent by the first mail after the last day of grace.

§ 9. Sometimes the seller of a note warrants it. If in his indorsement he guaranties "the payment of the note," he is liable the same as an original promisor. If he warrants it "good," or "collectable," the holder must show that it could not be collected of the maker when due, or the guarantor is not liable.

§ 10. Sometimes notes, so called, are made payable in grain, lumber, or some other property instead of money. But these are not considered in law as notes, and are not negotiable, though written payable to bearer. Such obligations, however, are often sold and transferred; but if sued, it must be done in the name of the payee, in which case the promisor may offset demands, if he has any, against the

tial ? § 6. Is a note negotiable after it has become due ? § 7. What effect have the words, on demand ? What if no time of payment is mentioned ? § 8. What are days of grace ? § 9. How is an indorser of a note made and held responsible ? How and when must he be notified of non-payment ? § 10. What is here said of obligations for property ? How sued, etc. ?

payee. If such obligations are not paid when they become due, they are then payable in money.

§ 11. A *bill of exchange* is an order drawn by one person on another, requesting him to pay money to a third person. The following is a form :

"UTICA, August 1, 1843.

"Ten days after sight, pay James Johnson or order, five hundred dollars, value received. PETER PRICE.

"To THOMAS THOMPSON,
Merchant, New-York."

§ 12. It will be seen that this is, in effect, the same as an order used in common business. But when drawn by merchants in commercial cities on persons in distant places orders of this kind are called bills of exchange. They are often very convenient to persons in mercantile business.

§ 13. The nature and operation of a bill of exchange are thus illustrated: A in New-York has \$500 due him from B in Cincinnati. A draws an order on B for that sum, and C, who is going to Cincinnati, pays A the money, and takes the order and receives his money again of B. If B has the money when the bill is presented; or if it is made payable at some future day, and he agrees to pay it, he is said to *accept* the bill; and as evidence of the fact, he writes his acceptance upon it.

§ 14. When a person accepts a bill, he becomes the debtor, but the drawer remains liable to pay if the acceptor fails to do so. But payment must be demanded of the acceptor on the last day of grace, and notice given to the drawer, as in the case of an indorsed note.

§ 15. *Interest* is an allowance for the use of money, or for the forbearance of a debt. Thus, a person lends to another \$100 for one year, and receives for the use of it \$7, which is called the interest. Promissory notes are generally made payable with interest.

§ 16. The rate of interest is fixed by law, but it is not the same in all the states. In the State of New-York it is seven per cent. that is, seven on every hundred for a year, and

§ 11. What is a bill of exchange? § 12. What is it like? § 13. State the nature and effect of a bill of exchange. How is it accepted? § 14. Who is then debtor? When must payment be demanded? § 15. What is interest? Give an example. § 16. What is the lawful rate of interest?

that proportion for a longer or shorter period. A less rate may be taken, by agreement; but when no special agreement is made, seven per cent. may, in all cases, be charged.

§ 17. A higher rate of interest than that fixed by law, is called *usury*. If a person has paid usurious interest, he may recover the amount paid above the lawful interest, if sued for within one year. A note or obligation on which more than lawful interest is to be taken for the loan of money, is void; and the payment of no part of it can be enforced.

§ 18. This law is intended to prevent persons from taking undue advantage of others, who, in cases of extreme necessity, might be compelled to pay exorbitant, and even ruinous rates of interest. It is thought by some, however, that such a law ought not to exist. In some states only half, and in others a still smaller proportion of the debt, is forfeited for taking usury.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

Moneyed Corporations.—Banks; Insurance Companies.

§ 1. We are informed that the first banks were only places where money was laid up or deposited for safe keeping. But banks at the present day are not used for depositing alone. No banks in this country can be established, but by authority of law. The formation, nature, and uses of a bank, are shown by the following example:

§ 2. If the inhabitants of a place want a bank, they petition the legislature to incorporate a banking association. The act of incorporation prescribes the manner in which the company shall be formed, how its business shall be done, and the amount of capital or stock to be employed. The capital is raised in this way: The sum intended to constitute the capital of the bank, is divided into shares of \$100 each: so that if the whole stock is to be \$100,000, there are 1000 shares. These shares are sold, to one person ten, to another

this state? § 17. What is usury? What is forfeited for taking usury?
§ 18. What is the object of this law?

§ 1. What is said of the first banks? § 2. State how a bank is autho-

twenty, and to another, perhaps fifty, and so on till all are sold, and the whole capital is paid in.

§ 3. Now a person buying any number of shares, takes a certificate, stating that he is the owner of such number of shares; and such certificate may be sold to another person.

§ 4. The stockholders choose of their number, usually thirteen directors, who choose one of themselves to be president; hence the name of a banking association generally is, "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of——." The president and directors choose a cashier and clerks.

§ 5. A part of the business of banks is still that for which they were originally intended, viz., depositing money. Merchants and other business men near a bank, deposit their money, and then draw it out as they have use for it, by sending their order to the cashier. This order is called a check.

§ 6. Banks are allowed to issue their own bills as money. A bank bill or note, is a promise to pay the bearer a certain sum, on demand, and is signed by the president and cashier. These bills pass as money, because persons holding them may get the gold or silver for them by demanding it of the cashier.

§ 7. A material part of the business of a bank is to lend money. If a man wants to borrow money at a bank, he makes a note for the amount wanted, which is signed by himself and one or two others as sureties. For this note the cashier pays, in the bank's own bills, deducting from the amount the interest for the time the note is to run.

§ 8. Another kind of business done by banks is, to assist merchants and others in transmitting money to distant places. An operation of this kind is performed thus: A in Boston wishing to send \$1,000 to B in Philadelphia, puts the money into a bank in Boston; and takes for it an order, or draft, on a bank in Philadelphia, for that amount to be paid to B. The draft is sent by mail to B, who calls at the bank, and receives his money: and the bank charges the amount to the Boston bank.

ized, and how the capital is raised. § 4. Who are the stockholders? What officers are chosen, and how? § 5. How are deposits drawn out of a bank? § 6. What is the nature of a bank bill? § 7. How is money borrowed from a bank? § 8. Describe the manner of transmitting money to distant places through banks? § 9. How are banks saved the trouble of collecting

§ 9. But how does the bank in Philadelphia get its money again? It must be remembered, that as there are many merchants in each city constantly trading with those in the other, large sums must be constantly sent from one place to the other, through the banks. The bank in each city, therefore, keeps account with that in the other; and as about an equal amount passes from each to each, many thousand dollars may be charged by each to the other, and on settlement but a small balance may be due from either.

§ 10. It has just been said that banks pay out their own notes as money, which they promise to pay on demand. Paying specie for their bills is called *redeeming* them. But banks sometimes issue more bills than they are able to redeem. In that case they are said to fail, or to break; and the holders of bills suffer loss; because the individual property of the stockholders cannot be taken to pay the debts of the bank, except in a few states.

§ 11. In the state of New-York there are laws which provide means for redeeming the bills of banks that fail. In 1830, a law was made imposing a yearly tax of one half of one per cent., that is, a half cent on every dollar, or a half dollar on every hundred dollars of their capital stock, until three per cent. should be paid. The money thus raised is a fund, called *safety fund*, from which bills of broken banks are redeemed. When this fund is likely to run out, the taxing must be renewed.

§ 12. A new banking law was enacted in 1838, by which banks thereafter to be established, were to put into the hands of the comptroller, securities for redeeming their bills, for the full amount of their capital. At least one half of these securities must consist of stocks of this or some other state, and the remainder, of mortgages on real estate. When a bank fails, the comptroller sells the lands and state stocks which he has in pledge, if necessary, to redeem the bills. Under this law, persons may form a banking association without applying for a special law of incorporation.

§ 13. But perhaps not every young reader knows what *state stocks* are. They are debts which a state owes. When

from each other after each operation? § 10. What is redeeming bills? § 11. Describe the banking law of 1830. § 12. How is security provided by the law of 1838? § 13. What are state stocks? Describe the manner

a state undertakes to construct a canal, or some other great work, or needs money for any other purpose, it borrows the money of rich individuals, generally for a long term of years. The business is done on the part of the state by the proper officer, (the comptroller in this state,) who gives for the money borrowed, the bonds of the state, promising to pay the money at the time specified, with interest at the rate agreed on.

§ 14. These bonds are usually given in sums of \$1,000, and may be sold and transferred as promissory notes. These state bonds or stocks are generally considered good security; because, if the state has no other means of redeeming its bonds, the legislature has power to pass a law to raise the money by a tax upon the people. Almost every state is more or less indebted, in this way, not only to American capitalists, but to those of European countries, whence many millions of dollars have been sent to the United States, to purchase state stocks.

§ 15. There is another kind of moneyed corporations, called *insurance companies*. They are formed in the same manner as banks. For a small sum paid them, say 50, 75, or 100 cents on every 100 dollars of the estimated worth of a building, they agree to pay for it if it should be destroyed by fire. They also insure ships and other vessels. Sometimes the lives of men are thus insured; the company agreeing to pay a certain sum, or a yearly allowance, for the benefit of a man's family in case of his death.

§ 16. There are also *mutual insurance companies*. Every person having his property insured, is a member of the company, and pays so many dollars on every hundred of the value of the property. Out of the fund thus raised a building when burned is paid for. Companies of this kind have been formed in every part of the state.

in which they are created. § 14. Why are these stocks thought good security? § 15. What is the nature of insurance companies? What do they insure? § 16. How is the fund of a mutual insurance company raised?

CHAPTER XXXIX.

Crimes.—Felonies, or Crimes punishable with Death, or by Imprisonment in State Prison.

1. To protect the persons and property of the citizens, there must be, in every state, laws against crime. These laws ought to define the several crimes, and to declare what shall be the measure of punishment to be inflicted upon offenders. There are, in the state of New York, three crimes punishable by death: treason against the people of the state, murder, and arson in the first degree.

2. These crimes are called *capital* offences, and their punishment is called *capital* punishment; because it is the worst that can be inflicted, and perhaps also because the word capital is derived from the Latin *caput*, which means head; and this punishment was formerly inflicted by beheading, and is said to be still practiced in some of the eastern countries.

3. *Treason* is defined by the statute to be, levying war on this state against the people of this state; or a combination of two or more persons, attempting by force to usurp or overturn the government of the state; or in adhering to enemies of the state while separately engaged in war with a foreign enemy, and giving them aid and comfort.

4. *Murder* is the killing of a person in the following cases: (1.) when done with intent to effect death; (2.) when done by an act imminently dangerous to others, and showing a depraved mind, regardless of human life, although without design to effect death; (3.) when done without design to effect death, by a person in committing a felony; (4.) when done by duelling. A *felony*, in this state, is a crime punishable by death or imprisonment in a state prison.

5. *Arson* in the first degree is wilfully setting on fire or burning, in the night time, a dwelling house or other building in which there is, at the time, some human being, and which

What crimes are punishable with death in this state? § 2. Why are these called capital offences? § 3. What is treason? § 4. What is murder? § 5. What is arson in the first degree? § 6. What is treason?

building has been usually occupied by persons lodging therein at night.

§ 6. *Manslaughter* in the first degree, is the killing of a person without a design to cause death, by another person who is engaged in committing, or is attempting to commit, a crime or misdemeanor less than a felony; or who assists another in committing self-murder. Penalty, imprisonment not less than seven years.

§ 7. *Manslaughter* in the second degree, is the killing of a person without a design to effect death, but in a cruel, unusual manner; or in unnecessarily killing another in attempting to hinder his doing an unlawful act. Imprisonment, not less than four years, nor more than seven.

§ 8. *Manslaughter* in the third degree, is the killing of another in the heat of passion, by a dangerous weapon, without a design to effect death; or the unintentional killing of a person by the negligence of another, engaged in committing or attempting to commit a trespass; or permitting a mischievous animal to go at large, knowing its evil propensities, if such animal shall kill a person; or undesignedly causing death by a physician in a state of intoxication, by administering any poison, drug, or medicine, or doing any other act which shall produce death; or causing death by persons navigating steam-boats or other vessels, through culpable negligence or ignorance. Imprisonment from two to four years.

§ 9. *Manslaughter* in the fourth degree, is the involuntary killing of a person with any weapon, or by means neither cruel nor unusual, in the heat of passion. State prison two years; or county jail, not exceeding one year, or fine of \$1,000, or both.

§ 10. *Homicide* signifies mankilling. It is of three kinds, felonious, justifiable, and excusable. When felonious, it is either murder or manslaughter. *Justifiable* homicide is that which is committed in the necessary defence of one's person, house or goods, or of the person of another, when in danger of injury; or that which is committed in lawfully attempting

slaughter in the first degree? What is the penalty? § 7. *Manslaughter* in the second degree? Punishment? § 8. *Manslaughter* in the third degree? Punishment? § 9. *Manslaughter* in the fourth degree? Punishment? § 10. What is homicide? State the different kinds. § 11. What

to take a person for felony committed, or to suppress a riot, or to keep the peace. *Excusable* homicide is the killing of a person by accident, or while lawfully employed, without any design to do wrong. In the two last cases there is no punishment.

§ 11. Intentionally *maiming* another by cutting out or disabling the tongue or any other member or limb; inveigling or *kidnapping*; *decoying* and taking away children; *exposing children* in the street to abandon them; committing or attempting an assault, with *intent to kill*, or to commit any other felony, or in resisting the execution of a legal process; *administering poison* without producing death; *poisoning any well* or spring of water; are all felonies, and punishable as such. State prison not over ten years; or in some cases, county jail, or fine, or both.

§ 12. *Arson* in the second degree, is setting on fire or burning an inhabited dwelling, in the day time; or setting on fire in the night time, a shop or other building endangering an inhabited dwelling. Arson in the third and fourth degrees, is the burning of buildings other than dwellings, and other property of various kinds. Imprisonment from two to ten years.

§ 13. *Burglary* in the first degree, is breaking into and entering, in the night time, a dwelling in which there is at the time some person, with intent to commit some crime therein, either by breaking or bursting into it, or by unlocking an outer door with false keys, or by picking the lock. Breaking into and entering a house, by day or by night, under circumstances which do not constitute burglary in the first degree, is burglary in the second or third degree. In the first degree, imprisonment not less than ten years; second degree, from five to ten; third degree, not more than five years.

§ 14. *Forgery* consists in falsely making, counterfeiting, or altering, any instrument of writing, with intent to defraud. The word *counterfeiting* is generally applied to making false coins or bank notes, or in passing them; or in having in possession any engraved plate, or bills unsigned, which are

are some of the crimes mentioned in this section? § 12. What is arson in the second degree? Third and fourth degrees? Punishment? § 13. What is burglary in the first degree? Second and third degrees? Punishment? § 14. What is forgery? Counterfeiting? Punishment? § 15. What is

intended to be used for these purposes. Imprisonment the same as for burglary.

§ 5. *Robbery*. Taking personal property from another in his presence and against his will, by violence, or by putting him in fear of immediate injury to his person, is robbery in the first degree. If the property is given up through fear of injury threatened upon his person or property, or upon that of a relative or member of his family, to be inflicted at some different time, it is robbery in the second degree. First degree, imprisonment not less than ten years; second degree, not more than ten years.

§ 16. Knowingly to send or deliver, or to make for the purpose of being sent, a letter or writing, threatening to accuse any one of crime, or to do him some injury, with intent to extort or gain from him any money or property, is considered an *attempt to rob*, for which the offender may be imprisoned not exceeding five years.

§ 17. *Embezzlement* is fraudulently putting to one's own use what is intrusted to him by another. To buy or receive property knowing it to have been embezzled, is to be guilty of the same offence. Embezzling is punishable in the same manner as larceny of the same amount.

§ 18. *Larceny* is theft or stealing. If the value of the property stolen is more than twenty-five dollars, the crime is *grand larceny*. Imprisonment not exceeding five years. If committed in a dwelling house, ship or other vessel, three years may be added. And if in the night time, imprisonment may be ten years. A second offence, though the amount stolen is under twenty-five dollars, is punishable as *grand larceny*.

§ 19. *Perjury* is wilfully swearing or affirming falsely, in any material matter, upon an oath legally administered. If committed on trial of a capital offence, imprisonment not less than ten years; on any other trial, not exceeding ten years. *Subornation of perjury* is procuring another to swear falsely punishable as perjury.

robbery in the first degree? Second degree? Punishment? § 16 What is an attempt to rob? Punishment? § 17. What is embezzlement? Punishment? § 18. What is larceny? Grand larceny? Punishment? Petit larceny? Punishment? § 19. What is perjury? Punishment? Subornation of perjury? Punishment? § 20. What is bribery? Punishment?

§ 20. *Bribery* is promising or giving a reward to a public officer, to influence his opinion, vote, or judgment. Imprisonment not exceeding ten years, or fine not exceeding \$5000, or both. A person *accepting* such bribe, is punishable in the same manner, and forfeits his office, and may never hold another public trust in this state. Penalty less in case of the lower officers.

§ 21. *Duelling* is a combat between two persons with deadly weapons. * Killing another in a duel is murder, and punishable with death. If death does not ensue, imprisonment not exceeding ten years. Challenging, or accepting a challenge, to fight, or to be present as a second, imprisonment not exceeding seven years.

§ 22. Aiding or attempting to aid a prisoner committed for felony, to *escape from confinement*, or forcibly rescuing a prisoner charged with crime, from the custody of a public officer, is a crime. Imprisonment not exceeding ten years. If the offence for which the prisoner is committed is less than felony, imprisonment in jail, not exceeding a year, or fine not exceeding \$500, or both.

§ 23. A sheriff, jailor, or other officer, for corruptly refusing to execute a lawful process for apprehending or confining a person charged with a criminal offence, or for conniving at or allowing the escape of a prisoner in his custody, may be imprisoned in jail, not exceeding a year, or fined not exceeding \$1000, or both: and such officer shall be for ever disqualified to hold office in this state.

§ 24. If a prisoner confined in a state prison shall break prison and escape; or if he shall attempt, by force or violence to any person, to escape from prison, whether he shall escape or not, five years may be added to the term for which he was imprisoned. A person confined in a county jail for a criminal offence, may, for breaking jail and escaping, be imprisoned in a state prison two years, or in a county jail one year, in addition to the former term. And any person, lawfully confined in jail for any cause whatever, who shall forcibly break jail, or attempt by force or violence to escape, may be imprisoned therefor in jail one year.

For accepting bribe, what? § 21. What is duelling? How punished?
 For aiding escapes, what punishment? § 23. For what are sheriffs
 and other officers punishable? To what extent? § 24. For breaking and

§ 25. *Bigamy* is the crime of having two or more wives and is also called *polygamy*. But bigamy literally signifies having *two* wives, and polygamy any number more than one. These words, in law, are applied also to women having two or more husbands. A person having a husband or wife living, and marrying another person, is guilty of bigamy. Imprisonment not exceeding five years. (For exceptions see Chap. 32, § 6.)

§ 26. An unmarried person, also, who shall marry the husband or wife of another, is punishable in like manner, or may be imprisoned in a county jail not exceeding a year, or fined not exceeding \$500, or both.

§ 27. *Incest* is the marrying or cohabiting together as husband and wife, of persons related to each other within certain degrees. (See Chap. 32, § 3.) Imprisonment not exceeding ten years.

§ 28. *Opening a grave* and removing a dead body, for any unlawful purpose, or purchasing such body knowing it to have been unlawfully disinterred, is a crime. Imprisonment not exceeding five years in state prison; or in jail not exceeding one year, or fine not over \$500, or both. Opening a grave with the above intent, or stealing the coffin or any article interred with the body, is punishable by imprisonment in a state prison two years; or in jail six months, or fine \$250, or both the latter.

§ 29. It is also criminal for a person knowing an offence to have been committed, for any money or promise of reward to conceal such offence. If the crime committed is punishable by death or imprisonment for life, the person concealing or compounding it, may be imprisoned in state prison five years, or in county jail one year. If the crime committed is punishable by a shorter imprisonment than for life, the person concealing it may be imprisoned in state prison three years, or in jail six months.

escaping from state prison, what penalty? From county jail, what? § 25. What is bigamy? Polygamy? Penalty? § 26. For an unmarried person marrying another's wife or husband, what penalty? § 27. What is incest? Penalty? § 28. For opening graves, what penalty? § 29. For concealing crimes, what penalty?

CHAPTER XL.

Offences punishable by Imprisonment in a county Jail and by Fines; General Provisions concerning Crimes; Arrest and Examination of offenders.

§ 1. Among the offences not punishable by imprisonment in a state prison are the following: Petit larceny, which is stealing \$25 or less, first offence; attempting to extort, by threats, any money or other benefit; fraudulent conveying or concealing property to defraud creditors; conspiracies by two or more persons to commit an offence; imprisoning or arresting another without legal authority, or under a false pretence; receiving a reward to conceal a misdemeanor; racing horses within a mile of the place where a court is sitting; wilfully committing trespass, by cutting down or carrying away any wood or timber, or injuring fruit, ornamental, or shade trees.

§ 2. Also the following: Voting at an election more than once; physicians or others when intoxicated, prescribing medicines endangering life; druggists or others keeping poisonous articles for sale without having them labelled with the word "poison;" maliciously killing or wounding animals belonging to another, or cruelly beating his own or another's; wilfully opening or reading sealed letters addressed to another, except in cases punishable by the laws of the United States; removing or defacing any monument, mile-stone, or guide-board; maliciously injuring or destroying a public bridge, toll-gate, or mill-dam.

§ 3. The above mentioned offences, and numerous others not here enumerated, are called misdemeanors, and are punishable by fine, or imprisonment in a county jail, or both. And any person having been convicted of an attempt to commit an offence which, if committed, would be punishable by imprisonment in a state prison, shall, for a second offence, be imprisoned in such prison.

§ 4. *General provisions.* Persons sometimes advise or are

§ 1 2. Mention some of the offences enumerated in these two sections?
 § 3. What are these offences called? How are they punished? How is a second attempt to commit a misdemeanor punished? § 4. What is an at-

knowing to the commission of felonies, but are not actual engaged in committing them. Such are *accessories*. I who advises or commands another to commit a felony is called an accessory *before the fact*, and is punished in the same manner as the principal. If he conceals the offender after the offence has been committed, or gives him any aid to prevent his being brought to punishment, he is an accessory *after the fact*, and may be imprisoned in a state prison not over five years, or in a county jail not more than one year, or fine not exceeding \$500, or both the latter.

§ 5. The terms of imprisonment prescribed by law for second offences, are much longer than those for first offence. And if a person is convicted of two or more offences before sentence is pronounced for either, the imprisonment for each subsequent offence begins at the end of the imprisonment for the former.

§ 6. Persons under sixteen years of age, convicted of a felony or other crime, instead of being sentenced to state prison or the county jail, may, by order of the court, be sent to the house of refuge established by the society for the reformation of juvenile delinquents, in the city of New York, there is room for them in such house of refuge.

§ 7. A person sentenced on conviction for a felony, shall not thereafter be competent to testify, in any cause, civil or criminal, except in the cases specially provided by law, unless he shall have been pardoned before the expiration of the term for which he was sentenced.

§ 8. No person can be twice tried for the same offence (Cons. Art. 7, § 7.) But if he was acquitted because the proof on trial did not agree with the indictment, or because the indictment was defective, he may again be indicted and tried.

§ 9. *Arrest and examination of offenders.* Any judge or justice of the peace has power to issue process for apprehending any person charged with an offence. When a complaint

cessory? An accessory before the fact? After the fact? Punishment? § 5. How does the punishment of a second offence differ from that of the first? When a person is convicted of two or more offences before sentence, what? § 6. Persons convicted under sixteen years, how may they be sentenced? § 7. What disqualification does conviction for felony produce? § 8. Can a person be twice tried for the same offence? What exception is mentioned? § 9. Who may issue process to apprehend offenders?

is made to a magistrate, he examines the complaint, on oath, and any witnesses that are produced ; and if it appears that an offence has been committed, he issues a warrant, commanding the officer to whom it is directed to bring the accused before the magistrate.

§ 10. The magistrate first examines the complainant and witnesses in support of the prosecution ; and next the prisoner, who is not on oath, and then his witnesses. The evidence is put to writing by the magistrate and signed by the witnesses. If an offence has been committed, the magistrate binds, by recognizance, the prosecutor and all material witnesses, to appear and testify against the prisoner, at the next court at which the prisoner may be indicted and tried.

§ 11. If the offence is one which may be tried by a *court of special sessions*, he may be forthwith tried by such court, if he chooses to be so tried. This court consists of any three justices of the peace of the town, and has power to try offences of the lower kinds ; and is calculated to prevent delay, and to save much trouble and expense.

§ 12. If the offender does not choose to be tried by this court, and if the offence is one for which he may be let to bail, the magistrate may take bail for his appearance at the next court. But if no bail is offered, or if the offence is not bailable, the prisoner is committed to jail until the next court having power to try him. But he must be indicted by a grand jury before he can be tried. (See Chap. 26, § 8.)

§ 13. The reason why offenders are sometimes arrested and examined before their case is brought before a grand jury, is to prevent their escaping before the next county court, as grand juries do not sit except during the sittings of courts.

§ 14. The way in which bail is taken is this : The accused gives a bond in such sum as the justice or judge shall require, with one or more sureties, who are bound for the appearance of the accused at the next court, or in case he shall not appear, then to pay the sum mentioned in the bond. This

is ? When is it issued and what is it called ? § 10. Describe the proceedings of the magistrate ? § 11. By what court may the offender be immediately tried ? What is the use of this court ? § 12. If the offender chooses not to be tried by it, what ? § 13. Why are offenders brought before magistrates ? § 14. How is bail taken ? What is a recognizance ?

bond or obligation is in law called a *recognizance*. The same name is also applied to the bond given by the prosecutor as witnesses for their appearance at court.

CHAPTER XLI.

Sundry Regulations for preserving Peace and Order.

§ 1. *Disorderly persons and practices.* THERE are numerous classes of persons who corrupt the morals and disturb the peace and good order of society; among whom are the following: men who threaten to run away and leave their families to be supported by the public; persons pretending to tell fortunes; keepers of houses for the resort of drunkards, gamblers, or other disorderly persons; persons having no visible calling, but who for the most part support themselves by gaming; all common showmen, rope dancers, and other public actors; keepers of gaming tables and other gaming machines or devices.

§ 2. Any person deemed to be disorderly may be brought, by warrant, before a justice for examination, and if found to be a disorderly person, the justice may require him to give a bond, with sureties, for his future good behavior; and if he cannot find sureties, he may be committed to jail.

§ 3. It is a disorderly act to fire *any gun* or other fire-arms, rocket, cracker, or other fire-works, within a quarter of a mile of a building, on Christmas and New-year's days, the 22d of February, or on the day celebrated as the anniversary of American independence, for which the offender may be fined five dollars.

§ 4. Any person who, on a day of public meeting, keeps any gaming establishment within half a mile of such meeting may be fined \$25; and it is the duty of sheriffs and all other peace officers to break, burn, or otherwise destroy every such gaming table or machine.

§ 1. What classes of persons are called disorderly? § 2. What may be done with them? § 3. What is the fine for firing guns &c. on certain days? What days? § 4. How are gaming tables, &c. prohibited on public days?

§ 5. Tavern keepers, grocers, or masters of vessels or boats for carrying passengers, may not allow gaming in their houses or on their boats. Fine \$10.

§ 6. *Raffling* for money or other property, or being interested in the same, is forbidden under a penalty of \$10. And any person setting up money or goods to be raffled for, forfeits three times the value of the same and ten dollars besides.

§ 7. *Betting and gaming* is a disorderly practice, and unlawful. The loser of any wager or bet is not bound to pay it; or, if he has paid it, he may sue for and recover the same. The winner at a game of chance forfeits five times the value of what he so wins; and the winner or loser at play, or by betting the value of twenty-five dollars or upwards within twenty-four hours, may be fined five times the sum so lost or won.

§ 8. *Racing horses* and other animals for any bet or stakes, is declared to be a common nuisance and misdemeanor; and all parties concerned therein are subject to a fine not exceeding \$500, or imprisonment not exceeding a year. And any person assisting to make up a purse to be run for, forfeits \$25. And all peace officers may disperse the persons assembled to attend the race; and judges and justices may issue warrants for arresting the offenders, and compel them to enter into recognisances, with sureties, for good behavior, and for their appearance at the proper court to answer for their offences. The owner of the racing animal forfeits the value of the same.

§ 9. *Profane cursing and swearing* is forbidden under a penalty of one dollar for every offence; and if done in the presence and hearing of a magistrate, he may convict the offender without other proof. If the offender does not forthwith pay the fine with costs, or give security for their payment within six days, he may be committed to jail not less than one day nor more than three days.

§ 10. For the wilful *disturbance of a religious meeting*, by improper behavior, or by making a noise within or near the

§ 5. How in taverns, groceries, and on boats? § 6. What is the penalty for raffling? § 7. Penalty for betting and gaming? § 8. Racing horses for bets or stakes? What power have peace officers to prevent racing? § 9. How may profane cursing and swearing be punished? § 10. Disturbing re

place of meeting, the offender may be fined not exceeding \$25; or in case of non-payment, he may be imprisoned, not exceeding thirty days, or till the fine shall be paid.

§ 11. The *observance of Sunday* is required. It forbids all shooting, hunting, sporting, and pastimes on that day; and all traveling and servile labor, except such as necessity and charity require. Penalty, one dollar for each offence, committed by a person of the age of fourteen years. Persons uniformly keeping Saturday as holy time, and whose labor does not disturb others in the observance of Sunday, are not required to keep this day.

§ 12. No person may expose to sale any goods, wares, fruits, or other property on Sunday; except meats, milk, and fish, which may be sold before nine o'clock in the morning. The articles so exposed for sale are forfeited, and may be seized by warrant, and sold on one day's notice, and the proceeds paid to the overseers of the poor.

§ 13. *Shows &c.* Any person exhibiting or performing for gain or profit, any wire or rope dance, or any other idle shows or feats which common showmen, mountebanks or jugglers usually perform; and any person allowing his house or any other part of his premises to be used for such purpose, forfeits \$25 for each offence. The same penalty applies to persons exhibiting any painting, animal, or natural or artificial curiosity, not above mentioned, without a written permission signed by two justices of the town.

The fines and penalties mentioned in the several sections of this chapter are principally applied to the support of the poor.

§ 14. *Beggars and vagrants.* All idle persons wandering about and begging, and giving no good account of themselves, are deemed *vagrants*, and may be taken before a magistrate and examined. If any such person needs relief, he may be provided for as a poor person, and kept at labor not exceeding six months; but if he is a notorious offender, he may be sent to a house of correction, or to a county jail, not exceeding sixty days.

ligious meetings? § 11. What is forbidden on Sunday? What is the penalty? § 12. What is forfeited for exposing goods for sale? § 13. What is the penalty for exhibitions, jugglery, &c.? In what case may certain curiosities be exhibited? How are fines applied? § 14. What is the law con

§ 15. *Habitual drunkards.* If the overseers of the poor discover any person to be a habitual drunkard, they may, by public advertisement, forbid all persons selling or giving such drunkard any spirituous liquors, unless by advice of a physician; and any person who shall offend against this provision, shall forfeit \$10 for the use of the poor. But the drunkard may have the fact determined by a jury whether he is or is not a habitual drunkard.

§ 16. To prevent the property of a habitual drunkard from being wasted, the overseers of the poor may apply to the chancellor, who provides for the safe-keeping of the property of idiots, lunatics, and other persons who are unable to manage their own affairs, and for maintaining them and their families out of their property. If the property of a drunkard amounts to less than \$250, the overseers may apply to the court of common pleas of the county, which has in that case the same power as the chancellor.

§ 17. *Law of the road, public stages, &c.* Persons meeting with carriages shall seasonably turn their carriages to the right of the centre of the road, under the penalty of \$5 to be recovered by the party injured. Any person who shall run his horses or suffer them to run with a carriage upon a public road, may be fined not exceeding \$100, or imprisoned not exceeding sixty days.

§ 18. Owners of public stages are forbidden to employ drivers addicted to drunkenness, under a penalty of five dollars for every day they are thus employed. The driver of any passenger carriage who shall leave his horses attached to it while passengers remain therein, without first fastening the horses or placing the lines in the hands of another person, forfeits \$20. And the owners of public carriages are liable for all injuries and damages done by their drivers, whether done wilfully or otherwise.

cerning beggars and vagrants? § 15. What way is provided to prevent habitual drunkards from getting liquor? § 16. To prevent their spending their property? § 17. What is the law of the road? § 18. What concerning public stage owners?

CHAPTER XLII.

Of the rights of Conscience ; Writ of Habeas Corpus ; Liberty of Speech and of the Press.

§ 1. THERE are certain important rights secured to the people of this state, which have not yet been noticed. The guaranty of these rights is in the 3d, 6th, and 8th sections of 7th article of the Constitution.

§ 2. The first of these sections (§ 3) secures to every citizen *liberty of conscience* ; which is the liberty to discuss and maintain our religious opinions, and to worship God in such manner as we believe most acceptable to him. This is a privilege heretofore denied to the people of many other countries, even in some called Christian and civilized ; in which many thousands have been put to death for their religious opinions.

§ 3. But the rights of conscience are now more extensively tolerated. In some countries, however, there is what is called an established religion, where some religious denomination receives the support of the government, as in Great Britain. This is called "union of church and state." But in this country the government does not interfere in religious matters, except to protect and secure to every denomination, "without discrimination or preference, the free exercise and enjoyment of religious worship."

§ 4. Another of the rights alluded to, is the privilege of the "writ of *habeas corpus*." This is a Latin phrase, which means, have the body. This privilege was long enjoyed by the people of Great Britain before the independence of the states ; and it is not strange that a people loving liberty should, in establishing a government of their own, insert such a provision in their constitution.

§ 5. A person committed, confined, or restrained of liberty for a supposed criminal matter, or under any pretext whatsoever, may, before the final judgment of a court

§ 2. What is liberty of conscience ? Has religious liberty always been enjoyed ? § 3. To what extent are the rights of conscience secured in this country ? § 4. What is the meaning of *habeas corpus* ? § 5. In

pronounced against him, petition a competent court or judge, stating the cause of complaint. The judge then issues a writ against the party complained of, commanding him to bring before the court or judge, the body of the person confined; and if he shall refuse to do so, he may be imprisoned.

§ 6. If, upon examination, it appears that the complainant has been illegally confined, the judge grants relief. If a person has been discharged upon habeas corpus, he may not be again confined for the same cause; but it is not to be deemed the same cause if, after a discharge, he shall be committed for the same offence by due process of law; or if, after a discharge for defect of proof, or defect in commitment, he shall be again arrested on sufficient proof, and committed for the same offence. For reimprisoning a person unlawfully after having been duly discharged, the law imposes a penalty of \$1250, to be paid to the party aggrieved.

§ 7. The section which remains to be noticed, is that which secures to all the right "freely to speak, write, and publish their sentiments;" that is, *the liberty of speech and of the press*. A *press* is a machine for printing; but the word is also used to signify the business of printing and publishing; hence liberty of the press is the free right to publish books or papers without restraint.

§ 8. In many foreign countries, persons were not allowed to speak against the government or its officers, however bad their character or acts might be. In some of these governments, books and papers could not be issued without being first examined by persons appointed by the government. In this country no law can be passed which shall prevent the humblest citizen from censuring the conduct of the highest officer of the government.

§ 9. But it must not be supposed that men may speak or publish, against others, whatever they please; for the same section which secures freedom of speech, makes us "responsible for the *abuse* of that right." Without some restraint,

cases, and how, is this writ obtained? § 6. What does the judge then do? Can he be twice confined for the same cause? For so doing, what is the penalty? What is not considered the same cause? § 7. What is liberty of speech? Liberty of the press? § 8. Is this liberty every where enjoyed? § 9. May we speak of others whatever we please? Why should we not?

wicked men might, by false reports, destroy the good name, the peace, or the property of others. Nor may we, in all cases, speak even the truth of others, if thereby we should injure them.

§ 10. To defame another by a false or malicious statement or report, is either slander or libel. When the offence consists in words spoken, it is *slander*; when in words written or printed it is called *libel*. As a slander in writing or in print is generally more widely circulated, and likely to do greater injury, it is considered the greater offence. Hence damages may sometimes be recovered for slanderous words printed, when for the same words merely spoken, a suit could not be maintained.

§ 11. It has just been stated, that we may not always even speak the truth of others. By the common law of England, the libel was considered as great when the statement was true as when false, because the injury might be just as great; and therefore when prosecuted for libel, a man was not allowed to prove to the jury the truth of his statement. Such may be considered the law in this country, except where special provision to the contrary has been made by law or constitution.

§ 12. But it may sometimes be proper to speak an unfavorable truth of others: therefore the framers of our constitution inserted this provision, that "the truth *may* be given in evidence to the jury; and if the matter charged as libellous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable ends, the party shall be acquitted."

§ 13. The wisdom of this provision is easily seen: suppose you know a person to be accustomed to steal, or to commit other secret injuries, you have a right to inform others of his practices to put them on their guard against him. But though a man has been guilty of bad conduct, if you publish the fact to injure him in his business or to expose him to public scorn, you are liable, because you did it not from good motives.

§ 10. What is the difference between slander and libel? § 11. If a person is prosecuted for slander or libel, may he, by the common law, prove that what he said is true? § 12. What does our constitution provide respecting this? § 13. Suppose a case in which it would be lawful to publish a man's bad character? § 14. For what is a person liable in case of slander? For

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CHARTERED

of the Government in June 1942.

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and of our own. All these are things of the
good. As people are, so are the things of the
the things of the

the results were as follows:

To each group of 10 subjects, the following questions were asked:

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1776, declared the colonies to be free and independent states.

§ 5. This declaration was called "the unanimous declaration of the United States of America:" but the states were united only in certain measures of safety. There was no government which exercised authority over the states. The people were subject to their respective state governments only. They were not yet incorporated into one nation for the purpose of government, as now, under a constitution. Hence, they were not properly citizens of the United States.

§ 6. To provide effectually for the future security, as well as the immediate safety of the American people, congress deemed it necessary that there should be a union of the states under some general government; and in November 1777, that body agreed upon a plan of union. The articles were called "articles of confederation and perpetual union between the states;" and were to go into effect when adopted by the legislatures of all the states. Some of the states were slow to agree to the articles; but they were finally adopted, March 1, 1781.

§ 7. The states were now united in a kind of national government, but it was not such a one as the present; as will appear by noticing a few points of difference between them. In the first place they were different in *form*. The confederation was a *union of states*; it was scarcely entitled to be called a government. It had not, as the national government now has, the three departments of power, legislative executive and judicial. It had only a legislature, and that consisted of only one body; and to that congress the seven states, large and small, were entitled to send each an equal number of delegates.

§ 8. That government differed from the present also in regard to its *powers*. The confederation was a very weak government. Its powers were vested in congress. The congress was to manage the common affairs of the nation, as

the first great congress assemble? When and where? What was done by the next congress? § 5. What was the declaration called? For what purpose were the states united? Was there a national government at the time? § 6. What kind of union was agreed upon by congress in 1777? When did these articles go into effect? § 7. Was that a government like the present? In what general respects was it different in form? § 8. How

to enact such laws (if laws they might be called) as might seem necessary; but it had not the power to enforce them.

§ 9. For example, it belonged to congress to ascertain the number of men and the sums of money to be raised to carry on the war, and to call on each state to raise its due share; but congress could not compel a state to do so. The government had no power to lay and collect taxes; it was dependent upon the states for raising the money to defray the public expenses. It could, and did, to some extent, borrow money in its own name, on the credit of the union; but it had not the means of repaying the money so borrowed. But one of its defects will hereafter appear.

§ 10. It may be asked, how so weak a government could keep the states together. The plan was devised in a time of war, and had respect to the operations of war, rather than a state of peace: and a regard to their own safety induced the states, in most cases, to obey the orders of congress; just as individuals will readily unite when exposed to a common danger, or when pursuing a common interest. But when the danger is passed, and the desired object attained, the union and friendship are easily broken:

§ 11. So it was with the states. The war being over, they did not continue to act in harmony. Laws were enacted in some states, giving their own citizens undue advantages over the citizens of other states; and soon the good feeling which had existed was interrupted: and in a few years the jealousies and disputes between the states became such as threatened to break up the union.

§ 12. It was now evident that to keep the states united in a state of peace with foreign nations, there must be a different government; a government possessing more extensive powers, which could control, in all needful cases, the action of the state governments.

§ 13. Having been thereto requested, congress called a convention, to revise and amend the articles of confederation. All the states, Rhode Island excepted, chose delegates, who

How did the confederation differ in regard to its powers? § 9. By way of example, what could congress do, and what could it not do? § 10. How were the states kept united under so weak a government? § 11. What caused dissensions and ill feeling between the states? § 12. What kind of a government was now appeared necessary? § 13. When did the convention meet, that

met at Philadelphia in May, 1787. Although it have been generally intended only to alter the confederation, it was proposed to the convention to new government, different both in its form, and in its powers. This proposition was agreed to by a majority of the convention; and after a long and arduous session closed in September, the present constitution was adopted by the convention.

§ 14. In examining the constitution, we see that also in its *nature* from the former government. This is seen from the manner in which it was formed and adopted. The articles of confederation were framed by congress, the members of which were appointed by the state legislatures, when so framed they were sent to the state legislatures to be approved by them, before they could go into effect. The adoption of these articles was therefore the act of the legislatures of the states, and not the act of the people of the states; and the confederation was a union of *states* than a union of the *people* of the states.

§ 15. The constitution, on the other hand, was framed by men appointed expressly for that purpose, and submitted to approval, not to the state legislatures, but to the people of the states, and adopted by state conventions, whose members were chosen for that purpose by the *people*. Hence, the adoption is virtually the act of the people; and the union is a mere confederation of states, but, as the preamble says, "a more perfect union," formed by "*the PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES.*"

CHAPTER XLIV.

Of the Legislative Department.

§ 1. THE legislature, called congress, is composed of two branches, a senate and a house of representatives.

framed the constitution? When did the session close? When was the constitution adopted? (See chap. 50, § 13.) § 14. By whom were the articles of confederation framed? By whom approved and adopted? By whom was the constitution, framed, approved, and adopted?

§ 1. How is congress composed? How is the senate constituted?

senate consists of two members from each state, chosen by the legislature, for six years. This body is constituted upon the same principles, nearly, as the old congress, the members of which were also chosen by the state legislatures; and the several states were entitled to an equal number, which number was not to be less than two nor more than seven; and they were chosen for one year only.

§ 2. A senator must be thirty years of age; and he must have been nine years a citizen of the United States, and must be an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen.

§ 3. The house of representatives is constituted upon the same principle as a legislative body of a state. As the members of assembly of the state of New-York, are apportioned among the counties, in proportion to the number of inhabitants in each, so each state sends to the lower house of congress, a number of members proportioned to the number of its inhabitants. Representatives are elected for two years.

§ 4. The constitution does not limit either house to any definite number of members. Whenever a new state is added to the union, two members are added to the senate, and one or more to the house of representatives.

§ 5. The number of representatives may change, also, while the number of states remains the same. After the taking of a new census, which is done every ten years, congress determines what number of inhabitants shall be allotted to a representative for the next ten years; which number, the constitution declares, shall not be less than 30,000.

§ 6. But a representative for every 30,000 inhabitants, as the population increases, would make the house too large. At this rate there would be, at present, more than 500 representatives. This number would be too great. It would be a needless expense to pay so many men to make laws, when a smaller number can do the business as well, and much more promptly. Hence congress, after the census of 1840,

What term are senators chosen? § 2. What are the qualifications of a senator? Upon what principle is the house of representatives constituted? What is the term of office of a representative? § 4. What adds to the number of members of each house? § 5. What is the least number of inhabitants that can be added to a representative? § 6. What is the present number? Why

fixed the number of inhabitants as the ratio of representation from each state, at 70,680. This gives to New-York representatives.

§ 7. Representatives are thus chosen: The country is divided, by the legislature, into thirty-four congressional districts, in each of which one member of congress is chosen. Each of the larger counties constitutes a district; and of the smaller, two or more together constitute a district. The city and county of New-York, by reason of its numerous population, is divided into four districts. Representatives to congress are chosen in this state, at the election, every two years.

§ 8. In the southern states, a large portion of the population are slaves. In ascertaining the number of representatives for the slave holding states, only three-fifths of the population are counted. It was contended by some of the delegates at the convention that framed the constitution, that the slave states ought not to be represented for the slaves, because slaves were property, and no property, in the states, entitled its owners to representation. After much debate, it was at length agreed, that every five slaves should be counted as three *free* citizens.

§ 9. A representative must be twenty-five years of age, and must have been seven years a citizen of the United States. Aliens, or foreigners, therefore, cannot become representatives until seven years after they have been naturalized.

§ 10. The manner of organizing the houses, and the mode of passing bills, as will be seen from the first article of the constitution, is similar to that which is practised by the state legislatures.

§ 11. Members of congress receive, for their services, fifteen dollars a day. The speaker of the house of representatives and the president of the senate *pro tempore*, when the president is absent, receive sixteen dollars a day. Members of congress, also receive a day's compensation for every twenty miles travel to and from the seat of government.

is the number so large? How many representatives has New-York? How are representatives chosen? § 8. By what rule are representatives appointed, to the slave-holding states? § 9. What are the qualifications of a representative? § 10. How do the houses of congress do business? What daily compensation do members receive? How much for travel? Is this just?

this is unreasonable. Such are the present facilities travelling, that a member may go from Buffalo to Washington in about three days, at an expense of about \$30, for which he is entitled to receive pay for more than thirty days' service.

CHAPTER XLV.

Of the Executive Department.

1. THE executive department of the general government, constituted in a manner similar to that of a state government. The chief executive officer is called the president of the United States. He is elected for four years. There is a vice-president, chosen at the same time, and for the same term. The general duties of these officers are much the same as those of the governor and lieutenant-governor of a state.

Con. Art. 2, § 2, 3.)

2. A president must be thirty-five years of age, and a natural born citizen of the United States. When the office of president becomes vacant, the vice-president becomes president; and a president of the senate, *pro tempore*, chosen by the senate for the purpose, takes the place of the vice-president.

3. In electing a president, the people do not vote directly. The voters of each state choose a number of men, equal to the number of senators and representatives to which the state is entitled in congress. These men, thus chosen in the several states, elect the president and vice-president, and are called presidential electors. The state of New-York, having thirty senators and thirty-four representatives in congress, is entitled to thirty-eight presidential electors.

4. These electors, however, are not chosen in the same manner as members of congress. The names of thirty-four electors, one from each congressional district in the state, are

. In whom is the executive power of the nation vested? What is the duty of his duties? § 2. What are the qualifications of a president? What is the principal business of a vice president? § 3. Do the people vote directly for president? By whom is he elected? § 4. How and when are

put on one ballot, together with the names of any other two men, corresponding with the two senators; and each voter in the state votes for the whole number of presidential electors to which the state is entitled. Presidential electors are chosen in this state at the general election in November; and by a law of congress, they must, in all the states, be chosen within thirty-four days before they meet to vote for president.

§ 5. The electors of president do not all meet in one body. Those of each state meet by themselves, in their own state, on the first Wednesday of December, and vote for president and vice-president; and make a list of the persons voted for, and the number of votes for each; which list is sent to the president of the senate, at the seat of the government of the United States, before the first of January. On the second Wednesday of February, the president of the senate, in the presence of all the senators and representatives, opens all the certificates, and the votes are counted. The person having a majority of all the electoral votes for president, is elected.

§ 6. But a person may have the highest number, that is a plurality, of the electoral votes, without having a *majority*. Suppose that at the next presidential election there should be three candidates for the office of president, and that of the 275 electoral votes, (there being at present 275 members of congress in both houses,) one candidate should receive 100 votes, another 90, and the other 85. Now a majority, that is, more than one half of the whole number, cannot be less than 138; consequently neither would be elected.

§ 7. If no person has a majority of the electoral votes the house of representatives must choose the president from those candidates, not exceeding three, who had the highest number of the electoral votes. But in so doing, the members do not all vote together, as when passing bills; but those of each state vote by themselves; and the candidate who receives the votes of a majority of the representatives of

the presidential electors chosen? § 5. How, where, and when, do they meet to vote for president? To whom do they send the list of votes? When, where, and before whom, are the votes from all the states counted? § 6. What is the difference between a plurality and a majority of votes? § 7. When no candidate has a majority, how is the president elected?

state, has but one vote for each such majority ; from which it appears, that there are only as many presidential votes as there are states ; and the person who receives the votes of a majority of the states, is elected.

§ 8. If there is no election of vice president by the electors, the senate, in a body, chooses one from the two having the highest numbers of the electoral votes. The person receiving the votes of a majority of the whole number of senators, is vice-president.

§ 9. The president and vice-president go into office on the 4th day of March next after the election, and end their term on the 3d day of March, four years thereafter ; the same days of the same month on which senators every six years, and representatives every two years, commence and end their regular terms of office.

§ 10. The powers and duties of the president are numerous, and some of them very important. They are, in their nature, much the same as those of the governor of a state. They will be found mentioned in the constitution, article 2, § 2, 3.

§ 11. The president has a salary of \$25,000 a year. Some think this too much. But the expenses of a president are necessarily very great. It is believed that no president has ever been able to lay up a large portion of his salary. The vice president receives \$5,000 a year. His principal duty is to preside in the senate.

CHAPTER XLVI.

Of the subordinate Executive Departments.

§ 1. THE general executive business of the nation, excepting what is done by the president in person, is performed in

How does the house vote ? § 8. How is the vice-president elected when no person has a majority of the electoral votes ? § 9. When do the president and vice-president begin and end their official terms ? When do senators and representatives ? § 10. What is said of the president's powers and duties ? § 11. What is the salary of the president ? Of the vice-president ?

§ 1. Name the heads of the several executive departments. What are

the several executive departments, of which the following are the head officers: the secretary of state, the secretary of the treasury, the secretary of war, the secretary of the navy, the attorney-general, and the postmaster-general. These officers are consulted by the president, on important public matters; and hence they are called "the cabinet." They are appointed by the president and senate.

§ 2. The *secretary of state* performs many duties similar to those of a secretary of a state government. Besides these, he transacts much of the business with foreign countries. If the president has instructions to give to our public ministers abroad, these instructions are communicated by the secretary of state; and he also conducts the correspondence, and transacts the business to be done, with the ministers of foreign countries residing here.

§ 3. The salary of the secretary of state is \$6,000 a year; that of his chief clerk, \$2,000. The business of granting patents for new inventions is done in this department, by a *commissioner of patents*, under the direction of the secretary. The commissioner receives \$3,000 a year; his chief clerk, \$1,700.

§ 4. The *secretary of the treasury* conducts the financial affairs of the government. His duties are nearly the same as those of the comptroller of the state of New York. There are, in this department, two comptrollers and five auditors, to examine and settle the public accounts, and collect the debts due the United States; a treasurer to keep and pay out the money; a register, who keeps accounts of the goods imported and exported, and of the shipping employed in our foreign trade; a solicitor; and a commissioner of the land-office.

§ 5. The salary of the secretary of the treasury is \$6,000; that of his chief clerk, \$2,000; other officers receive as follows: solicitor of the treasury, \$3,500; his chief clerk, \$1,150; 1st comptroller, \$3,500; chief clerk, \$1,700; 2d comptroller, auditors, treasurer, and register, each \$3,000; chief clerk of each, \$1,700; commissioner of land

they sometimes called? How appointed? § 2. What are the duties of the secretary of state? § 3. What is his salary? That of his chief clerk? Of the commissioner of patents? of his chief clerk? § 4. What is the business of the secretary of the treasury? Of the comptrollers, auditors, treasurer and register? § 5. What is the secretary's salary? The salaries of the

chief clerk, \$3,000; solicitor, \$2,000; three clerks, each \$1,800; a recorder and secretary, each \$1,500.

§ 6. The business of the *secretary of war* relates to the military affairs of the United States, and to Indian affairs. The nation supports what is called a standing army, which consists, at present, of about 9,000 armed men, stationed in different parts of the United States, and ready for service when wanted. The salary of the secretary is \$6,000; that of his chief clerk is \$2,000. Several under officers receive some \$2,500, others \$3,000, and their chief clerks from \$700 to \$1,700 each.

§ 7. The *secretary of the navy* superintends the business relating to the navy. A navy is the fleet, or ships of war, which a nation keeps to defend itself in time of war, and to protect the trade of its citizens on the high seas in time of peace. The salary of the secretary is \$6,000, his chief clerk \$2,000; three navy commissioners, each \$3,500; their secretary \$2,000; and a chief clerk, \$1,600.

§ 8. The *attorney-general* prosecutes and conducts all suits in the supreme court in which the United States are concerned, and gives his advice upon questions of law, when requested by the president or heads of departments. His salary is \$4,000.

§ 9. The *postmaster-general* establishes post-offices, appoints postmasters and provides for carrying the mails. The business of this department is very extensive. There is a postmaster in almost every town in the union; in some towns there are several. Letters and papers are sent by mail to the most distant parts of the United States in a few days.

§ 10. Every postmaster is required to keep an account of all the letters sent from and received at his office, and of the names of the offices to which sent, and from which received; and also the letters on which the postage was paid when mailed, and on which it was unpaid, and of those which are sent free of postage: and at the end of every quarter such

other officers? And of their clerks? § 6. What is the business of the war department? What is said of the army? What is the secretary's salary? The salaries of other officers and their clerks? § 7. What does the secretary of the navy do? What is a navy? Secretary's salary? His chief clerk's? Salaries of the three navy commissioners? Of their secretary and clerks? § 8. What is the business of the attorney-general? His salary? § 9. What are the principal duties of the postmaster-general? § 10. What is required

account is sent to the postmaster-general, together with a statement of all moneys received for postage and paid by each postmaster. All letters which were advertised and which still remain in the office, are put up in a packet and sent to the general post-office, where they are opened, and, if found to contain any thing of sufficient importance, are returned by mail to the writers of them.

§ 11. The returns thus made to the postmaster-general are all examined, to see whether they are correct. The examination of the account of every postmaster in the union, the making of contracts for carrying mails on post-roads, and a variety of other business, require the services of a great number of assistants and clerks.

§ 12. Postmasters; civil officers at the seat of government; and members of congress from sixty days before the commencement of the first session of the term for which they are elected, until the commencement of the first session of the next congress, may, to a limited extent, receive and send letters and papers free of postage, by *franking* which is done by writing their names and offices on the outside. Attempts have been made to reduce the rates of postage; and as it is probable that a reduction will soon be made, the rates are omitted.

§ 13. The number of post offices in the union is 13,000. The length of post-roads over which the mails are carried during the year ending June 30, 1842, was 1,000 miles; the number of miles of mail carriage was 34,833; the whole amount received for postages and fines, \$4,543, and the whole amount paid for transporting the mails and other expenses incurred during the year, \$4,235,052.

§ 14. The salary of the postmaster-general is \$3,000; three assistants receive \$2,500 each; and the deputy postmaster receives \$3,000. Postmasters receive for their services a certain rate per cent. on the money received by them at their respective offices. This per centage varies, however, being greater or less when the amount of postages for a quarter is over or under a certain sum.

of the deputy postmasters? § 12. What is *franking*? Who has the privilege? How is it done? § 13. How many post-offices in the United States? Give the statistics of the year 1842. § 14. What are the salaries

§ 15. All the secretaries and postmaster-general, except the secretary of the treasury, report annually to the president, who lays their reports before congress. The secretary of the treasury reports directly to congress.

CHAPTER XLVII.

Of the Judicial Department.

§ 1. As has been stated, there was, before the adoption of the constitution, no established national judiciary. The necessity of such a tribunal to decide disputes between states, and other matters of a national character, having become apparent, power was given to congress to establish national courts. (See Cons. Art. 1, § 8; Art. 3, § 1.)

§ 2. It is proper that all cases arising between citizens of the same state, as well as all crimes committed against its laws, should be tried by the courts of the state. But when cases arise under the laws of the United States, or between different states, or citizens of different states; or when crimes are committed on the ocean, or elsewhere beyond the jurisdiction of a state, it is evident that some other than a state court ought to try such cases. For example, if a person should violate the laws of congress made for the collection of duties on goods imported, he must be prosecuted in a court of the United States. So a murder committed at sea, beyond the limits of a state, is properly tried in a national court. Piracy; which is robbery on the high seas, is always tried in such court. And so all other cases mentioned in article section 2, of the constitution.

§ 3. The lowest national courts are the *district courts*. Every state constitutes at least one district; a few of the large states, two each. In each district is a judge, who has power to hold a court. There are also in each district a

postmaster-general and his under officers? What is the compensation of duty postmasters? § 15. To whom do the heads of departments report? § 1. What is the object of having national courts? § 2. What are some of the cases that properly come before these courts? What is piracy? Which are the lowest national courts? What constitutes a district?

Such, for example, is the duty paid by keepers of and groceries for the privilege of selling liquors.

§ 5. Notwithstanding congress has power to raise by taxation in several ways, it has seldom been found necessary to exercise it in any other way than by laying on foreign goods, and on the vessels in which they are imported. How effectual this mode of taxation will appear from the following facts:

§ 6. At the close of the revolutionary war, the debt amounted to \$42,000,000, on which congress could not so much as pay the interest. Two years after the constitution went into effect, the debt had risen to \$75,000,000, in 1804, to \$86,000,000. From that time it gradually diminished until the commencement of the late war, when it was reduced to \$45,000,000. By that war the debt was again increased, being in 1816, \$127,000,000.

§ 7. Now the raising of so large a sum by a direct tax would have been very oppressive. Wherefore congress has exercised its power of taxation almost exclusively in duties on imports; and from the revenue thus raised only have the yearly expenses, of the government been defrayed, but this vast national debt has long since remained unpaid, besides leaving in the treasury a large surplus which has been distributed among the states, and loaned out to citizens.

§ 8. Equally necessary is the power next mentioned, "to borrow money on the credit of the United States." Large sums of money are sometimes wanted to pay a debt, which they can be raised from the revenues or regular taxes in the nation; and sometimes immediately, as in case of war. In such case, congress must tax the people, or borrow money. But who would lend the government, if it had no other means of paying?

§ 9. Here, then, we see the utility of both these powers. Capitalists are now willing to lend their money to the government, because, if other means of paying its debts should be insufficient, it has power to raise the money by taxation.

difference between duties and imposts? What is an excise? § 4. Have direct taxes been often laid? § 6. State the amount of the national debt at each period here mentioned. § 7. By what means has this debt been

§ 10. The power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations," which is next in the list, seems to be, in a measure, connected with the first, "to lay duties." It will be remembered that, before the war of the revolution, the colonies were dependent on Great Britain for manufactured goods. By the war, trade with that country was interrupted. But when peace was restored, the British again sent their goods into this country; but they levied heavy duties upon American produce and American vessels coming into their ports, with the view of so raising the price of foreign agricultural products, as to compel her citizens to buy those of their own country. Thus was the trade of the two countries placed on an unequal footing. We wanted English goods, but England would not take the produce of our labor in exchange, without subjecting it to heavy duties.

§ 11. Hence, some regulations concerning foreign trade became necessary. Congress had not the power to regulate commerce; it belonged to the states. But the states, acting separately, were unable to effect the object desired; they could not agree upon any system of measures. A change in the government must be made before the evil could be remedied. And we learn from the history of that day, that, to give to the general government power to regulate trade was one of the principal causes, perhaps the more immediate cause, of calling the convention that framed the constitution.

§ 12. It has just been remarked, that the two powers, "to lay duties," and "to regulate commerce," are nearly allied. Indeed, the former has been used to carry into effect the intentions of the latter. The first law but one, passed by the first congress under the constitution, authorized "duties to be laid on goods, wares, and merchandises, imported," and for purposes, one of which was declared to be, "the encouragement and protection of domestic manufactures." England, by her regulations of trade encouraged the supplying of her own people with provisions, congress intended, by laying duties upon foreign goods, to encourage the manufacture of similar goods at home.

§ 8, 9. Why is the power to borrow money necessary? § 10. What power next mentioned? What is said about our trade with Great Britain? § 11. What then became necessary? Why could they not be made? What did this lead to? § 12. What law was passed by the first congress

§ 13. Whether this is a wise measure for regulating commerce of a nation, is a question in political economy upon which statesmen differ; one which it is not the object of this work to discuss. The above facts are given to explain the objects and use of the power to regulate foreign commerce.

§ 14. Congress has power, also, to regulate commerce "among the several states." Without this power, each state might adopt regulations favorable to its own citizens, and injurious to the people of other states. This was done under the confederation; and to restore and preserve harmony, and to secure equal justice to the citizens of the states, which could be done only by one uniform system for the whole, this power was given to the general government.

§ 15. Under the power to regulate commerce, congress has also made *navigation laws*, or laws relating to the shipping of the nation. These laws require vessels to be licensed, to ascertain how much they hold; and prescribe the manner in which they are enrolled or registered, and the manner in which they are to enter and leave the ports, and the duties of the masters of vessels, declaring what they are to carry, &c.

§ 16. These regulations are especially necessary for the collection of the revenue arising from foreign commerce. There is, in every port of entry, a *collector of customs*, who superintends the collection of duties. When a vessel arrives, it is submitted, with the cargo, and all papers on board, to the inspection of the proper officers; and the cargo is subject to duty are all weighed or measured, and the duties estimated according to law.

§ 17. On some articles a *specific* duty is charged, as on a pound of iron, or fifty cents on a yard of cloth. On other articles are charged with an *ad valorem* duty, which means

under the constitution? What was one of the objects of this law? What other commerce may congress regulate? Why is this power necessary? § 15. Under what power are navigation laws made? What is navigation? What do these laws require? § 16. For what purpose are these regulations necessary? What is done when a vessel comes to a port? What is a port? § 17. What is a specific duty? Ad

according to the value, being a certain per centage on the value of an article; as forty per cent. on what costs one dollar, would be forty cents; or thirty per cent. on every hundred dollars would be thirty dollars. In certain cases, *tonnage* duties are charged, upon foreign vessels, at so much per ton of their measurement.

§ 18. All this business requires a vast amount of labor. Nearly five hundred men are employed at the custom-house in the city of New-York. The whole amount derived from customs in the United States, in 1842, was about \$22,000,000. Besides this a considerable sum was received into the treasury from the sale of public lands. These two sources produce nearly the whole revenue of the nation; from which are paid the salaries of officers, and other expenses of the government.

CHAPTER XLIX.

Powers of the General Government, continued.

§ 1. ANOTHER power given to congress, is the power "to establish a uniform rule of naturalization." It has already been stated, that foreigners, or aliens, are not entitled to the privileges of citizens till they become naturalized. Before the constitution was adopted, every state established its own rules for naturalizing foreigners. But as a person, on being made a citizen in any state, becomes a citizen of the United States, it is evident that there should be but one rule of naturalization.

§ 2. An alien must have lived in the United States five years, before he can become a citizen. Two years before he is admitted as a citizen, he must declare, on oath, in writing, before a proper court, that he intends to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce his allegiance

Tonnage duty? § 18. What is said of the custom-house business? In the city of New-York? How much revenue is derived from customs? For what purposes is the income of the nation expended?

§ 1. What is naturalization? Why should this power be in congress?
 § 2. How soon may an alien become naturalized? What is the rule of

to his former government; and he must declare, on oath, that he will support the constitution of the United States. Then, two years thereafter, the court, if satisfied as to his moral character and his attachment to the constitution, may admit him as a citizen.

§ 3. On his being naturalized, a man's minor children, if dwelling in the United States, also become citizens. If a man has lived at least three years in the United States before he becomes of age, he may, at the expiration of the five years' residence, be admitted by the court, without having previously made a declaration of his intention to become a citizen.

§ 4. The power "to coin money and regulate the value thereof," is properly given to congress. Formerly the system of reckoning was by pounds, shillings, and pence; the value of which was different in different states. For instance in the New-England states, six shillings make a dollar, in New-York eight, in Pennsylvania seven shillings and sixpence. This rendered dealing between the people of different states quite inconvenient. The present decimal mode of calculation, in dollars and cents, established by congress, together with the use of decimal coins, has removed the former inconvenience.

§ 5. Money is coined at the *mint*, which is in Philadelphia. The business of coining is under the superintendence of a director. The gold and silver, before it is coined, is called *bullion*. Individuals, as well as the government, may get money coined at the mint. Six principal men employed in the mint, receive salaries of \$1,000 to \$2,000 each. Gold and silver are also coined at New-Orleans; and gold, to some extent, is coined at some place in North Carolina, and at another in Georgia.

§ 6. Another power of congress is "to promote the progress of science and useful arts." Sciences and arts are much aided by new books and new inventions. But if every body had the privilege of printing and selling every new book or other writing, and of reaping equal benefits from

naturalization? § 3. How do children become citizens? In what case may persons be admitted as citizens, without first declaring their intention to become such? § 4. What were the inconveniences suffered from the old system of reckoning? How have they been removed? § 5. Where is money coined? What is bullion? § 6. What is the object of the power

y new invention or discovery, there would be less engagement for men of ability and genius to spend their and money in preparing new works for the public.

7. Congress has therefore passed an act by which an or may get, for his writings, a *copy-right*, by which all persons are prohibited, for twenty-eight years, from ing or publishing the same without the proprietor's con-

And the proprietor may, at the expiration of that, get the right renewed for fourteen years longer. *arts* for new inventions are granted for fourteen years; may be renewed for a farther term of seven years, if nventor shall not have been reasonably rewarded.

8. The powers relating to war and the public defence, also given to congress. It would be dangerous to allow gle state to make war; and to depend on the state rments to provide the means of prosecuting a war, already been found to be unsafe. And as the people of e states become involved in the calamity and expense war, the power to declare war ought to belong to the sentatives of the whole nation.

9. So also the power "to grant letters of *marque* and *sal*." Letters of *marque* and reprisal give to persons ed by citizens of another nation, the liberty to seize the s or goods of any of the citizens of such nation, and n them till the injury shall be repaired. It is not clear such license ought ever to be given. But the power to : it ought to be vested in congress, if any where.

10. Congress has power "to exercise exclusive legis- i," (that is, congress only, has the power to make laws,) the District of Columbia, in which is the seat of govern- . The "ten miles square," as appears from the age of the clause, was not yet in possession of the al government; but it was in contemplation, by the of Maryland and Virginia, to cede it to the United States e purpose mentioned. As it is the property of the

note the progress of science and useful arts? § 7. What privileges copy-right give to an author or proprietor of a book or other writing? privilege does a patent confer upon an inventor? § 8. For what rea- the power given to congress to declare war, and provide for the de- of the nation? § 9. What are letters of *marque* and reprisal? § 10. What territory may congress exercise exclusive legislation? What is

nation, it is proper that congress alone should be allowed to make laws for the people therein.

§ 11. A very essential power of the general government is the power "*to make treaties.*" This power, however, is exercised by the president and senate. A *treaty*, is an agreement between two nations. Treaties are made to restore or preserve peace, and sometimes to regulate trade, between nations. It is plain, therefore, that this power ought to be in the national government; and for wise reasons it is given to the president and senate alone. And for reasons equally strong, the power to appoint ambassadors and others, by whom treaties are negotiated, should be in the same hands. (See Con. Art. 2, § 2, clause 2.)

§ 12. In making a treaty, the terms are arranged and agreed upon by the agents of the two governments; and the articles of agreement are sent to their respective governments to be ratified. Hence, what is meant by the president and senate's making treaties, is their approving them, or giving them effect. Each civilized nation has some officer at home, and a representative at the seat of each foreign government, to transact business for his nation, and to keep his government advised of what is done abroad. There is, at the city of Washington, a minister from Great Britain, France Russia, and other foreign countries. The person who corresponds with them on the part of our government, is the secretary of state. And we also have a minister in each of those countries.

§ 13. Representatives at foreign courts are differently styled, ambassadors, envoys, ministers, and *chargés d'affaires*. The duties of all these several agents are not always precisely the same. An *envoy*, and sometimes an *ambassador*, is sent on a special occasion, and returns when the particular business on which he was sent is done. The others reside abroad, and act in obedience to instructions sent them from time to time. *Chargés d'affaires* are ministers of a lower grade. The name is French, and means a person

meant by exclusive legislation? What is here said of the district? Where is the seat of government? § 11. In whom is the power to make treaties vested? What is a treaty? § 12. Describe the manner of making treaties? What practice of civilized nations is here spoken of? § 13. What are the names of the different foreign representatives? In what do

having charge of the affairs of his nation. *Consuls* reside in foreign seaports, as much of their business relates to the commercial intercourse between nations, and is done with masters of vessels and with merchants.

§ 14. Ministers of the United States receive a salary of \$9,000 a year; *chargés d'affaires*, \$4,500: and both receive, besides, on going out of the United States, an *outfit*, equal to a year's salary.

CHAPTER L.

Powers prohibited to Congress and the States.

§ 1. While the constitution gives many important powers to the general government, there are many things which it expressly declares shall not be done. (See Art. 1, § 9.)

§ 2. "No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed." A *bill of attainder* is an act of the legislature, inflicting the punishment of death upon a person pronounced guilty of some crime, without trial. If it inflicts a milder punishment, it is called a bill of pains and penalties.

§ 3. An *ex post facto* law is, literally, a law which has effect upon an act after it is done. But the phrase here means a law to punish, as a *crime*, an act that was lawful when it was done. Thus, if a law should be passed, by which a man should suffer death for an act of justifiable homicide, committed before the law was made, such would be an *ex post facto* law. A law is also an *ex post facto* law that inflicts a more severe penalty for an *unlawful* act, than was imposed for such offence when committed. Thus, if a law were passed to-day, requiring that men now awaiting trial for petit larceny heretofore committed, should, on conviction, suffer death, or imprisonment in state prison, the law would be *ex post facto*.

§ 4. "No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, un-

der duties differ? What is a *chargé d'affaires*? Why do consuls reside in seaports? § 14. What is the compensation of ministers, &c.

§ 2. What laws shall congress not pass? Define bill of attainder. § 3. What is an *ex post facto* law? § 4. What is a capitation tax? § 5. What

"less in proportion to the census or enumeration here fore directed to be taken." (Cons. Art. 1, § 9.) word *capitation* is derived from the same Latin word *ital*, which has been defined. It is a tax of so much every head, or poll, without respect to property; hence usually called a *poll-tax*. Taxes of this kind are not in this country. A portion of the highway labor, as we seen, is thus assessed.

§ 5. "No attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person tainted." (Cons. Art. 3, § 3, cl. 2.) To the young this sentence may need explanation. Literally, attainder means a taint, or staining, or corruption; but it here signifies the same as judgment, or conviction. By the common law, the stain of treason was made to affect the blood of the traitor, so that he could neither inherit property himself nor could his heirs inherit from him; but his whole estate was forfeited. The constitution properly abolishes a law which the innocent were made to suffer for the crime of others.

§ 6. Besides corruption of blood and forfeiture, the punishment of inflicting the punishment was most disgraceful and inhuman. The offender was drawn to the gallows on a hurdle; hanged by the neck, and cut down alive; his entrails taken out and burned while he was yet alive; his head cut off; and his body quartered. Power being given to congress in the clause above referred to, "to declare the punishment of treason," congress has abolished this barbarous punishment. Hanging; simply, is the punishment.

§ 7. Not congress only, but the states also, are prohibited from doing certain acts. (See Art. 1, § 10.) One of the things there forbidden is, to "make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts." This means that no person shall be compelled to take, in payment of a debt owing to him, any thing *tendered* or offered tendered but gold and silver coin.

§ 8. Both during and after the war, a large amount

is here meant by attainder of treason? Corruption of blood? § 6. What was punishment for treason formerly inflicted? § 7. The states shall not make any thing but coin a tender in payment of debts: what does this mean? § 8. What is here meant by bills of credit? What in pay-

paper money, almost worthless, was put in circulation; and by some of the states, this money was declared to be a tender. Hence the propriety of this prohibition. But the constitution goes farther, and says, (in the same clause,) that no state shall "*emit bills of credit*;" that is, issue paper money on the credit of the state. Bank bills, it will be remembered, are not issued by the state, but by banking companies.

§ 9. Most of the other things here forbidden to the states, congress has the power to do; and it would be improper to give these powers to both. Indeed, they were given to the general government, for the very reason that it was not expedient that they should be exercised by the states.

§ 10. Constitutions properly contain some provision for amending them, in case it may become necessary. The mode of amending the constitution of the United States, is prescribed in the 5th article. (Examine the article.) To get a majority of two-thirds of congress or of the states to propose amendments, and then to get the proposed amendments ratified, either by the legislatures of three-fourths of the states, or by conventions in three-fourths of them, is very difficult. This is right. If the constitution could be altered by a bare majority, there would be danger of its being too frequently altered—sometimes, perhaps, for the worse.

§ 11. By the 2d clause of the 6th article, the constitution, and the laws and treaties made under it, are declared to be binding above all state constitutions and laws. If it were not so—if all state authorities were not bound by the constitution of the United States, it would be good for nothing; there might as well be no general government at all. Any law, therefore, which is decided by a competent court to be contrary to the constitution, is void.

§ 12. By the last article, the constitution was to go into effect, when ratified by conventions of delegates of nine states, which was then a majority of three-fourths of the states. As it was hardly to be expected that every state would immediately adopt it, it was not thought proper to risk the good of all upon an event so doubtful.

induced the framers to forbid their being issued? § 9. What are some of the other things forbidden to the states? (See Constitution.) § 10. How are amendments to be made to the constitution? § 11. What is provided in the 2d clause of the 6th article of the constitution? Why should the acts of

§ 12. The framers closed their labors in September and in July 1787, New Hampshire, the ninth state ratification to Congress; and Congress appointed Wednesday of January, 1788, for choosing electors in the several states, and the first Wednesday every for the electors to meet in their respective elect the president. Gen. Washington was chosen, and on the 30th of April, was inaugurated. Proceedings, however, commenced under the constitution on the 4th of March, preceding.

§ 14. In the foregoing sketch of the government of the United States, many provisions of the constitution passed over without remark. A note on every cannot be given. The student who wishes to obtain knowledge of our national jurisprudence, is referred to the larger work of the author, entitled "Science of man."

CHAPTER LI.

Review and Conclusion.

§ 1. FROM the view which has been given of our and national governments, it must be seen how they are adapted to promote the general welfare of the people, and secure to them the blessings of liberty. Let us, in review, again advert to some of the leading features of our political system.

§ 2. One of the excellencies of this system is that to which political rights and privileges are enjoyed in ancient democracies of Greece, where every free member of the legislature, political rights were and exercised only by about one twentieth part of citizens of full age. In England and France, and

the general government be binding upon the state authorities? was the constitution ratified? § 13. When was it finally ratified? when was the government commenced under it? Who was the first president? and when elected?

§ 3 To what extent was political power exercised in ancient

branch of the legislature is elective, a large portion of the people have no right to vote for their representatives. In the latter country, containing a population of nearly 35 millions, there are only about half as many voters as in the state of New-York.

§ 3. But in the greater portion of the United States, nearly all the *white* male citizens exercise the rights of freemen. They have a voice in choosing their constitution, and in electing the officers of the government. This is the fundamental principle of republicanism, the highest privilege of freemen.

§ 4. Another excellency of our government, and one that gives security to liberty, is the division of the civil power into legislative, executive, and judicial. If the persons who make the laws, should also have power to execute them and to judge of and apply them, the government, whatever it might be called, would be little better than a despotism. There would be too many different powers in the same hands. It has been found better to keep these several kinds of power separate.

§ 5. Additional security is given to liberty by the peculiar nature of the union. This has been described. It differs from the unions that have heretofore existed. These were simple confederacies or leagues between sovereign states. The old American confederation was of this kind. By a *sovereign* state, we mean a state that makes all its own laws, and is controlled by no superior power.

§ 6. The Swiss cantons are at present united in such a confederacy. They are sovereign states; and as in all mere confederations, each canton has an equal vote in the congress. The principal German states are similarly united; some of which are republican, and others monarchical.

§ 7. But the states of the American union are not wholly sovereign. They have, for the good of the whole, given up a portion of their sovereignty to the general government, which, in some cases, controls the state governments. If the states were entirely sovereign, they could establish any

What is said of the right of suffrage in England and France? § 3. What is said of the same in the United States? § 4. What division of civil power gives security to liberty? § 5. What else increases this security? What is a sovereign state? § 6. What is said of the Swiss and German confede-

kind of government. But by the constitution, the general government has power, and is bound, to prevent any state from changing its government to any other than a republican form. (Art. 4, § 4.)

§ 8. In the progress of this work, the government of the United States has frequently been called the *national* government; but it is not wholly national. To have an idea of a government purely national, we must suppose the people united in one great government, with only one legislature to make laws for the whole nation, one executive, and one judiciary. And in adopting a constitution, all the electors must vote directly for or against the proposed form, and a majority of all the votes must be necessary for its adoption, as when choosing a state constitution.

§ 9. But it must be kept in mind that the state governments existed first, and that the civil conduct of the citizens is regulated by the laws of the states. Although the general government, also, in some cases, acts directly upon individual citizens, and is superior to the state governments; yet its powers extend only to certain objects, which powers are given to it by the people of the states: consequently all powers which the constitution does not grant to the general government, remain with the states and the people.

§ 10. The government is therefore of a *mixed* nature, being partly national and partly federal. *Federal* signifies united by a league or confederation, and implies that the members have equal power. Such was the character of the old confederation; and some of its principles have been retained in the constitution.

§ 11. Under the former, all the states were equally represented in the congress, the members of which were chosen by the state legislatures. So in the senate, the states are equally represented now; and the senators are also appointed by the state legislatures. So in the adoption of the constitution the states had an equal voice; and so they must have in amending it. In these cases the *federal* principle is preserved.

rations? § 7. Are our states wholly sovereign? How, and to what extent are they prevented from changing their governments? § 8. What would be necessary to make the general government purely national? § 9. By what laws is the civil conduct of the citizens regulated? Whence does the general government derive its powers? § 10. What two principles are combined in the general government? What is federal? § 11, 12

§ 12. Again: In electing a president by presidential elections, each state having a number proportioned to its population, the election is upon the *national* principle. But if the election is to be made by the house of representatives, each state has an equal vote: this is according to the *federal* principle. Hence the government of the United States is sometimes called the "federal government."

§ 13. It may perhaps be asked: Why are so many governments necessary? Why not dispense with the state governments, and let the people of the whole nation be united in one great national government, like that of a state? Such a plan would be impracticable. A single government could not make all the laws necessary for so great a nation, nor manage its numerous affairs. Hence, the interests of large portions and of different classes of the people must be neglected. Complaints and grievances would spring up in every quarter, and the government could not satisfy or redress them; and disorder and confusion would soon prevail throughout the republic, and perhaps result in bloodshed.

§ 14. Thus we see that our liberties are best secured by having the national territory divided into portions of convenient size, with a government in each, and by binding them together under a strong national government, which shall keep each of them within its own proper sphere.

§ 15. How highly favored the people who live under such a government as that which we have described! How dear should be the memory of those who achieved the independence of these states, and established the system of government which has conveyed to us, their descendants, the blessings of civil and religious freedom! And what a debt of gratitude is due to the Supreme Ruler of nations, for conducting a feeble and infant nation, through difficulties and dangers, to a state of unexampled prosperity and happiness!

§ 16. With our patriot fathers, the great object was, independence and liberty. With us let the question be, How shall our liberties be preserved? Whether the American people shall long continue to enjoy the blessings which our

Wherein has the federal principle been retained? § 13. Why might not the whole nation be under a single government? § 14. How are our liberties best secured? § 15. To whom are we indebted for all the blessings of our government? § 16. On what does the continuance of our liberties

excellent constitution is capable of securing to them, depend upon what shall be the character and conduct of the people themselves.

§ 17. A nation, to be prosperous and happy, must be virtuous. A community may live under a free constitution, and yet suffer all the evils of a despotism. The people may be their own oppressors. Bad laws in a republican government, are no less oppressive than in any other. Where there is not virtue in the body politic, bad men will be elected to office, and bad laws will be made.

§ 18. On the other hand, freedom may be enjoyed even in a monarchy. A wise and virtuous king will make good and wholesome laws; and his subjects may as truly enjoy civil and religious liberty, as the citizens of a republic. Freedom exists really wherever the laws are good, and where they are properly administered and duly respected.

§ 19. The people must also be intelligent. In general, the freedom and happiness of a nation are in proportion to its intelligence. If people are ignorant, they cannot govern themselves. Indeed, they know not what their natural rights are. Besides, if they are not well informed, they are liable to be deceived by intriguing politicians, who seek power only to use it for selfish purposes.

§ 20. Hence the necessity of vigilance also. As men in office are prone to abuse their power, they should be closely watched; and as they are but the servants of the people, they should be called to account for improper conduct: and the people must not suffer party prejudice to blind them to the errors of their greatest favorites.

§ 21. If, then, we would continue a free and happy people, we must be intelligent, virtuous, and vigilant. Our liberties *may* be preserved; and they *will* be preserved, as long as the general diffusion of useful knowledge shall continue to be liberally encouraged, and the conduct of our citizens, in their social and political relations, shall be governed by religious principle, and a genuine and enlightened patriotism.

depend? § 17, 18. What is necessary to the happiness and prosperity of a nation? Can there be freedom in a monarchy? Where does it exist? § 19. What are the effects of ignorance, in a community? § 20. What is said in respect to the necessity of vigilance? § 21. What, then, must be done?

APPENDIX.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

In Congress, July 4, 1776.

UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.

Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while they are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and importance, unless suspended in their operation, till his assent is obtained ; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and fatal to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing in a manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to call new ones to be elected ; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large, for their exercise, the state being, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states ; by obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners ; by refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the barriers against new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing to pass laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any disorders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states :

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our consent :

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury :

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences :

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable and ancient rights, and altering fundamentally the forms of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves superior to the power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connexions and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority, of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of the declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK,

President of Congress, and

Delegate from Massachusetts.

New Hampshire. Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts Bay. Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode Island, &c. Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

Connecticut. Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Liams, Oliver Wolcott.

New York. William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, I Morris.

New Jersey. Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hanson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania. Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

Delaware. Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M'Kean.

Maryland. Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

Virginia. George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr. Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North Carolina. William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

South Carolina. Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Jr. Arthur Middleton.

Georgia. Button Gwinett, Lyman Hall, George Walton

Attest, CHARLES THOMPSON, *Secretary.*

STITUTION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK

, the people of the state of New York, acknowledging with grati-
the grace and beneficence of God, in permitting us to make choice
form of government, do establish this constitution.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. The legislative power of this state shall be vested in a
and assembly.

2. The senate shall consist of thirty-two members. The sena-
shall be chosen for four years, and shall be freeholders. The assem-
shall consist of one hundred and twenty eight members, who shall be
ly elected.

3. A majority of each house shall constitute a quorum to do busi-
Each house shall determine the rules of its own proceedings, and
judge of the qualifications of its own members. Each house
choose its own officers; and the senate shall choose a temporary
ent, when the lieutenant governor shall not attend as president, or
act as governor.

4. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and pub-
lie same, except such parts as may require secrecy. The doors of
house shall be kept open, except when the public welfare shall re-
secrecy. Neither house shall, without the consent of the other,
n for more than two days.

5. The state shall be divided into eight districts, each of which
choose four senators.

the first district shall consist of the counties of Suffolk, Queens,
, Richmond and New York.

the second district shall consist of the counties of Westchester, Put-
Dutchess, Rockland, Orange, Ulster and Sullivan.

the third district shall consist of the counties of Greene, Columbia,
y, Rensselaer, Schoharie and Schenectady.

the fourth district shall consist of the counties of Saratoga, Montgom-
amilton, Washington, Warren, Clinton, Essex, Franklin and St.
ence.

the fifth district shall consist of the counties of Herkimer, Oneida,
son, Oswego, Lewis and Jefferson.

the sixth district shall consist of the counties of Delaware, Otsego,
ungo, Broome, Cortland, Tompkins and Tioga.

The seventh district shall consist of the counties of Onondaga, Seneca and Ontario.

The eighth district shall consist of the counties of Steuben, L. Monroe, Genesee, Niagara, Erie, Allegany, Cattaraugus and Ch

And as soon as the senate shall meet, after the first election in pursuance of this constitution, they shall cause the senators vided by lot, into four classes, of eight in each, so that every di have one senator of each class: the classes to be numbered, three and four. And the seats of the first class shall be vaca end of the first year; of the second class at the end of the sec of the third class at the end of the third year; of the fourth cl end of the fourth year; in order that one senator be annually each senate district.

SEC. 6. An enumeration of the inhabitants of the state shall under the direction of the legislature, in the year one thous hundred and twenty-five, and at the end of every ten years t and the said districts shall be so altered by the legislature, a session after the return of every enumeration, that each sena shall contain, as nearly as may be, an equal number of inhabi cluding aliens, paupers, and persons of color not taxed, and shu unaltered until the return of another enumeration, and shall a consist of contiguous territory; and no county shall be divid formation of a senate district.

SEC. 7. The members of the assembly shall be chosen by cot shall be apportioned among the several counties of the state, as may be, according to the numbers of their respective inhabitan ing aliens, paupers, and persons of color not taxed. An appo of members of assembly shall be made by the legislature, at it sion after the return of every enumeration; and, when made, main unaltered until another enumeration shall have been tal an apportionment of members of the assembly shall be made by t legislature according to the last enumeration, taken under au the United States, as nearly as may be. Every county heretof lished, and separately organized, shall always be entitled to on of assembly, and no new county shall hereafter be erected unle lation shall entitle it to a member.

SEC. 8. Any bill may originate in either house of the legisla all bills passed by one house may be amended by the other.

SEC. 9. The members of the legislature shall receive for thei a compensation to be ascertained by law, and paid out of t treasury; but no increase of the compensation shall take effe the year in which it shall have been made. And no law shall increasing the compensation of the members of the legislature b sum of three dollars a day.

SEC. 10. No member of the legislature shall receive any civi ment from the governor and senate, or from the legislature, d term for which he shall have been elected.

SEC. 11. No person being a member of congress, or holdin

r military office under the United States, shall hold a seat in the
re. And if any person shall, while a member of the legislature,
ed to congress, or appointed to any office, civil or military, under
ernment of the United States, his acceptance thereof shall vacate

12. Every bill which shall have passed the senate and assembly,
efore it become a law, be presented to the governor. If he ap-
ie shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections,
house in which it shall have originated; who shall enter the ob-
at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after
consideration, two thirds of the members present shall agree to
e bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other
y which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by
rds of the members present, it shall become a law. But in all
ses, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays;
names of the persons voting for and against the bill, shall be en-
n the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be
d by the governor within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall
en presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as
d signed it, unless the legislature shall, by their adjournment, pre-
return; in which case it shall not be a law.

13. All officers holding their offices during good behavior, may
oved by joint resolution of the houses of the legislature, if two
f all the members elected to the assembly, and a majority of all
nbers elected to the senate, concur therein.

14. The political year shall begin on the first day of Janu-
d the legislature shall every year assemble on the first Tuesday of
7, unless a different day shall be appointed by law.

15. The next election for governor, lieutenant governor, senators
mbers of assembly, shall commence on the first Monday of No-
, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two; and all subsequent
s shall be held at such time, in the month of October or Novem-
the legislature shall by law provide.

16. The governor, lieutenant governor, senators, and members of
ly, first elected under this constitution, shall enter on the duties of
pective offices, on the first day of January, one thousand eight
d and twenty-three; and the governor, lieutenant governor, sena-
d members of assembly, now in office, shall continue to hold the
ntil the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and
-three, and no longer.

ARTICLE II.

1. Every male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, who shall
en an inhabitant of this state one year preceeding any election,
the last six months a resident of the town or county where he
fer his vote; and shall have, within the year next preceding the
s, paid a tax to the state or county, assessed upon his real or per-
property; or shall by law be exempted from taxation; or being
and equipped according to law, shall have performed, within that

year, military duty in the militia of this state; or who shall be exempt from performing military duty in consequence of being a fireman in city, town or village in this state: and also every male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, who shall have been, for three years next preceding such election an inhabitant of this state; and for the last year, a resident in the town or county where he may offer his vote: and shall have been within the last year, assessed to labor on the public highways, or shall have performed the labor, or paid an equivalent therefor, according to law; shall be entitled to vote in the town or ward where he actually resides, and not elsewhere, for all officers that now are, or hereafter may be, elective by the people. But no man of color, unless he shall have been for three years a citizen of this state, and for one year next preceding any election, shall be seized and possessed of a freehold estate of the value of two hundred and fifty dollars, over and above all debts and encumbrances thereon; and shall have been actually rated, and paid taxes thereon, shall be entitled to vote at any such election. And no person of color shall be subject to direct taxation, unless he shall be seized and possessed of such real estate as aforesaid.

SEC. 2. Laws may be passed, excluding from the right of suffrage persons who have been or may be convicted of infamous crimes.

SEC. 3. Laws shall be made for ascertaining by proper proofs, the persons who shall be entitled to the right of suffrage hereby established.

SEC. 4. All elections by the citizens shall be by ballot, except for town officers as may by law be directed to be otherwise chosen.

ARTICLE III.

SEC. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a governor. He shall hold his office for two years; and a lieutenant governor shall be chosen at the same time, and for the same term.

SEC. 2. No person except a native citizen of the United States, shall be eligible to the office of governor; nor shall any person be eligible to that office, who shall not be a freeholder, and shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and have been five years a resident within this state, unless he shall have been absent during that time on public business from the United States, or of this state.

SEC. 3. The governor and lieutenant governor shall be elected at the same times and places of choosing members of the legislature. They shall respectively having the highest number of votes for governor and lieutenant governor, shall be elected; but in case two or more shall have an equal and the highest number of votes for governor or for lieutenant governor, the two houses of the legislature shall, by joint ballot, choose one of the said persons so having an equal and the highest number of votes for governor or lieutenant governor.

SEC. 4. The governor shall be general and commander in-chief of the militia, and admiral of the navy of the state. He shall have power to convene the legislature, (or senate only,) on extraordinary occasions. He shall communicate by message to the legislature at every session the condition of the state; and recommend such matters to them as he may judge expedient. He shall transact all necessary business with

f government, civil and military. He shall expedite all such as may be resolved upon by the legislature, and take care that are faithfully executed. He shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the term for which he shall have been elected.

3. The governor shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons in all cases of criminal conviction for all offences, except treason and impeachment. Upon conviction for treason, he shall have power to suspend the execution of the sentence, until the case shall be reported to the legislature at its next meeting; when the legislature shall either pardon or direct the execution of the criminal, or grant a further reprieve.

4. In case of the impeachment of the governor, or his removal from office, death, resignation, or absence from the state, the powers and duties of the office shall devolve upon the lieutenant governor for the residue of the term, or until the governor, absent or impeached, return or be acquitted. But when the governor shall, with the consent of the legislature, be out of the state in time of war, at the head of the military force thereof, he shall continue commander-in-chief of the military force of the state.

5. The lieutenant governor shall be president of the senate, and shall have only a casting vote therein. If, during a vacancy of the office of governor, the lieutenant governor shall be impeached, die, resign, or be absent from the state, the president of the senate shall act as governor, until the vacancy shall be filled, or the term shall cease.

ARTICLE IV.

1. Militia officers shall be chosen or appointed as follows: captains, subalterns, and non-commissioned officers, shall be chosen by the written votes of the members of their respective companies. Major officers of regiments and separate battalions, by the written votes of the commissioned officers of the respective regiments and separate battalions.

2. Major generals, brigadier generals, and commanding officers of regiments or separate battalions, shall appoint the staff officers of their respective divisions, brigades, regiments or separate battalions.

3. The governor shall nominate, and with the consent of the senate, all major generals, brigade inspectors, and chief of the staff officers, except the adjutant general and commissary general; the adjutant general shall be appointed by the governor.

4. The legislature shall, by law, direct the time and manner of electing militia officers, and of certifying their election to the governor.

5. The commissioned officers of the militia shall be commissioned by the governor; and no commissioned officer shall be removed from office by the senate, on the recommendation of the governor, stating the grounds on which such removal is recommended, or by the decision of the court martial pursuant to law. The present officers of the militia shall hold their commissions, subject to removal as before provided.

6. In case the mode of election and appointment of militia officers

hereby directed, shall not be found conducive to the improvement of the militia, the legislature may abolish the same, and provide by their appointment and removal, if two thirds of the members of each house shall concur therein.

SEC. 6. The secretary of state, comptroller, treasurer, attorney general, surveyor general, and commissary general, shall be appointed as follows: The senate and assembly shall each openly nominate one person for each office respectively; after which, they shall meet together, and agree in their nominations, the person so nominated shall be appointed to the office for which he shall be nominated. If they shall disagree, appointment shall be made by the joint ballot of the senators and members of assembly. The treasurer shall be chosen annually. The secretary of state, comptroller, attorney general, surveyor general, and commissary general, shall hold their offices for three years, unless sooner removed by concurrent resolution of the senate and assembly.

SEC. 7. The governor shall nominate, by message or writing, with the consent of the senate, shall appoint, all judicial officers, except justices of the peace, who shall be appointed in manner following: The board of supervisors in every county in this state shall, at such time as the legislature may direct, meet together; and a majority of them so assembled, shall nominate so many persons to be justices of the peace as shall be equal to the number of justices of the peace to be appointed in each of the several towns in their respective counties. And the judges of the several county courts, or a majority of them, shall also meet and nominate a like number of persons; and it shall be the duty of the said boards of supervisors and judges of county courts, to compare such nominations at such time and place as the legislature may direct; and if, on comparison, the said boards of supervisors and judges of county courts agree in their nominations, in all, or in part, they shall file a certificate of their nominations in which they shall agree, in the office of the clerk of the county; and the person or persons named in such certificates shall be appointed justices of the peace; and in case of the disagreement in the whole, or in part, it shall be the farther duty of the said boards of supervisors and judges respectively, to transmit their said nominations, so far as they disagree, to the governor, who shall select from the same, and appoint so many justices of the peace as shall be equal to fill the vacancies. Every person appointed a justice of the peace shall hold his office for four years, unless removed by the county court, or particularly assigned by the judges of the said courts; and no justice of the peace shall be removed, until he shall have notice of the same made against him, and an opportunity of being heard in his defence.

SEC. 8. Sheriffs and clerks of counties, including the register of the city and county of New York, shall be chosen by the boards of supervisors of the respective counties once in every three years, and as often as vacancies shall happen. Sheriffs shall hold no other office, and be re-elected for the next three years after the termination of their offices. They shall be required by law to renew their security, from time to time, in the default of giving such new security, their offices shall be deemed vacant. But the county shall never be made responsible for the acts of the

governor may remove any such sheriff, clerk or register, at any time within the three years for which he shall be elected, giving to such clerk or register, a copy of the charges against him, and an opportunity to be heard in his defence, before any removal shall be made.

9. The clerks of courts, except those clerks whose appointment is made for in the preceding section, shall be appointed by the courts of which they respectively are clerks; and district attorneys by the county courts.

Clerks of courts, and district attorneys, shall hold their offices for three years, unless sooner removed by the courts appointing them.

10. The mayors of all the cities in this state shall be appointed by the common councils of their respective cities.

11. So many coroners as the legislature may direct, not exceeding one for each county, shall be elected in the same manner as sheriffs, and shall hold their offices for the same term, and be removable in like manner.

12. The governor shall nominate, and, with the consent of the senate, appoint, masters and examiners in chancery; who shall hold their offices for three years, unless sooner removed by the senate, on the re-election of the governor. The registers and assistant registers, appointed by the chancellor, shall hold their offices during his term.

13. The clerk of the court of oyer and terminer, and general sessions of the peace, in and for the city and county of New-York, shall be appointed by the court of general sessions of the peace in said city, to hold his office during the pleasure of said court; and such clerks and officers of courts, whose appointment is not herein provided for, shall be appointed by the several courts; or by the governor, with the consent of the senate, as may be directed by law.

14. The special justices, and the assistant justices, and their clerks, in the city of New-York, shall be appointed by the common council of the city; and shall hold their offices for the same term that the justices of the peace, in the other counties of this state, hold their offices, and shall be removable in like manner.

15. All officers heretofore elective by the people, shall continue to be so elected; and all other officers whose appointment is not provided for in this constitution, and all officers whose offices may be hereafter created by law shall be elected by the people, or appointed, as may be directed by law.

16. Where the duration of any office is not prescribed by this constitution, it may be declared by law; and if not so declared, such officer shall be held during the pleasure of the authority making the appointment.

ARTICLE V.

1. The court for the trial of impeachments, and the correction of errors, shall consist of the president of the senate, the senators, the chancellors, and the justices of the supreme court, or the major part of them; but no impeachment shall be prosecuted against the chancellor, or any justice of the supreme court, the person so impeached shall be suspended from office until the trial.

from exercising his office, until his acquittal; and when an appeal from a decree in chancery shall be heard, the chancellor shall inform the court of the reasons for his decree, but shall have no voice in the final sentence; and when a writ of error shall be brought, on a judgment of the supreme court, the justices of that court shall assign the reasons for their judgment, but shall not have a voice for its affirmance or reversal.

SEC. 2. The assembly shall have the power of impeaching all civil officers of this state for mal and corrupt conduct in office, and high crimes and misdemeanors: but a majority of all the members elected shall concur in an impeachment. Before the trial of an impeachment, the members of the court shall take an oath or affirmation, truly and impartially to try and determine the charge in question according to evidence: and no person shall be convicted, without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present. Judgment in cases of impeachment, shall not extend farther than the removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit, under this state; but the party convicted shall be liable to indictment and punishment, according to law.

SEC. 3. The chancellor and justices of the supreme court shall hold their offices during good behavior, or until they shall attain the age of sixty years.

SEC. 4. The supreme court shall consist of a chief justice, and two justices, any of whom may hold the court.

SEC. 5. The state shall be divided by law, into a convenient number of circuits, not less than four nor exceeding eight, subject to alteration by the legislature, from time to time, as the public good may require; for each of which a circuit judge shall be appointed, in the same manner, and hold his office by the same tenure, as the justices of the supreme court: and who shall possess the powers of a justice of the supreme court at chambers, and in the trial of issues joined in the supreme court, and in courts of oyer and terminer and jail delivery. And such equity power may be vested in said circuit judges, or in the county courts, or in such other subordinate courts, as the legislature may by law direct, subject to the appellate jurisdiction of the chancellor.

SEC. 6. Judges of the county courts, and recorders of cities, shall hold their offices for five years, but may be removed by the senate, on the recommendation of the governor, for causes to be stated in such recommendation.

SEC. 7. Neither the chancellor nor justices of the supreme court, nor any circuit judge, shall hold any other office of public trust. All votes for any elective office, given by the legislature or the people, for the chancellor, or a justice of the supreme court, or circuit judge, during his continuance in his judicial office, shall be void.

ARTICLE VI.

SEC. 1. Members of the legislature, and all officers, executive and judicial, except such inferior officers as may by law be exempted, shall, before they enter on the duties of their respective offices, take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear, (or affirm, as the case may be,) that I will sup-

constitution of the United States, and the constitution of the New York, and that I will faithfully discharge the duties of e of ———, according to the best of my ability.”
no other oath, declaration or test, shall be required as a qualification for any office or public trust.

ARTICLE VII.

1. No member of this state shall be disfranchised or deprived of its or privileges secured to any citizen thereof, unless by the law and, or the judgment of his peers.

2. The trial by jury, in all cases in which it has been heretofore all remain inviolate forever; and no new court shall be instituted, as shall proceed according to the course of the common law; such courts of equity as the legislature is herein authorized to

3. The free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed state, to all mankind; but the liberty of conscience hereby secured, t be so construed as to excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify, pra-consistent with the peace or safety of this state.

4. And whereas the ministers of the gospel are, by their profession, ed to the service of God, and the cure of souls, and ought not to ed from the great duties of their functions; therefore, no minister pel, or priest of any denomination whatsoever, shall at any time r, under any pretence or description whatever, be eligible to, or of holding, any civil or military office or place within this state.

5. The militia of this state shall, at all times hereafter, be armed iplined, and in readiness for service: but all such inhabitants of te, of any religious denomination whatever, as from scruples of ice may be averse to bearing arms, shall be excused therefrom, ig to the state an equivalent in money; and the legislature shall by law for the collection of such equivalent, to be estimated ac- to the expense in time and money, of an ordinary able bodied nan.

6. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, hen, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require ension.

7. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or other in- rime, (except in cases of impeachment, and in cases of the militia actual service; and the land and naval forces in time of war, or is state may keep, with the consent of congress, in time of peace, cases of petit larceny, under the regulation of the legislature;) n presentment, or indictment of a grand jury; and in every trial achment or indictment, the party accused shall be allowed counsel il actions. No person shall be subject, for the same offence, to e put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall he be compelled, in inal case, to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, or property, without due process of law: nor shall private property, a for public use, without just compensation.

Sec. 8. Every citizen may freely speak, write and publish his sentiments, on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that right; no law shall be passed to restrain or abridge the liberty of speech or the press. In all prosecutions or indictment for libels, the truth given in evidence to the jury: and if it shall appear to the jury, that the matter charged as libellous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable ends, the party shall be acquitted; and the jury shall have the right to determine the law and the fact.

Sec. 9. The assent of two thirds of the members elected to each house of the legislature, shall be requisite to every bill appropriating the moneys or property, for local or private purposes, or creating, confirming, altering, or renewing, any body politic or corporate.

Sec. 10. The proceeds of all lands belonging to this state, except the parts thereof as may be reserved or appropriated to public use, or sold to the United States, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, together with the fund denominated the common school fund, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout this state. Rates of toll, less than those agreed to by the canal commissioners, and set forth in the report to the legislature of the twelfth of March, one thousand eight hundred and twenty one, shall be imposed on, and collected from, all the navigable communication, between the great western and northern lakes, and the Atlantic ocean, which now are, or hereafter shall be made and completed; and the said tolls, together with the duties on the manufacture of all salt, as established by the act of the fifteenth of April, one thousand eight hundred and seventeen; and the duties on goods sold at auction, excepting therefrom the sum of thirty three thousand five hundred dollars, otherwise appropriated by the said act; and the amount of the revenue established by the act of the legislature of the thirtieth of March, one thousand eight hundred and twenty, in lieu of the tax upon steam boat passengers; shall be and remain inviolably appropriated and applied to the completion of such navigable communications, and to the payment of the interest, and reimbursement of the principal, of the money borrowed, or which hereafter shall be borrowed to make and complete the same. And neither the rates of toll on the navigable communications, nor the duties on the manufacture of salt aforesaid, nor the duties on goods sold at auction, as established by the act of the fifteenth of April, one thousand eight hundred and seventeen, nor the amount of the revenue, established by the act of March thirtieth, one thousand eight hundred and twenty, in lieu of the tax upon steam boat passengers; shall be reduced or diverted, at any time, before the full and complete payment of the principal and interest on the money borrowed, or to be borrowed, as aforesaid. And the legislature shall never sell or dispose of the salt springs belonging to this state, or the lands contiguous thereto, which may be necessary or convenient for their use, nor the said navigable communications or any part or interest thereof; but the same shall be and remain the property of this state.

Sec. 11. No lottery shall hereafter be authorized in this state; and the legislature shall pass laws to prevent the sale of all lottery tickets, in this state, except in lotteries already provided for by law.

SEC. 12. No purchase or contract for the sale of lands in this state, made since the fourteenth day of October, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five, or which may hereafter be made, of or with the Indians in this state, shall be valid, unless under the authority and consent of the legislature.

SEC. 13. Such parts of the common law, and of the acts of the legislature of the colony of New York, as together did form the law of the said colony on the nineteenth day of April, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five, and the resolutions of the congress of the said colony, and of the convention of the State of New York, in force on the twentieth day of April, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven, which have not since expired, or been repealed, or altered; and such acts of the legislature of this state as are now in force, shall be and continue the law of this state, subject to such alterations as the legislature shall make concerning the same. But all such parts of the common law, and such of the said acts or parts thereof, as are repugnant to this constitution, are hereby abrogated.

SEC. 14. All grants of land within this state, made by the king of Great Britain, or persons acting under his authority, after the fourteenth day of October, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five, shall be null and void; but nothing contained in this constitution shall affect any grants of land within this state, made by the authority of the said king or his predecessors, or shall annul any charters to bodies politic and corporate, by him or them made before that day; or shall affect any such grants or charters since made by this state, or by persons acting under its authority; or shall impair the obligations of any debts contracted by the state, or individuals, or bodies corporate, or any other rights of property, or any suits, actions, rights of action, or other proceedings, in courts of justice.

ARTICLE VIII.

SEC. 1. Any amendment or amendments to this constitution, may be proposed in the senate or assembly; and if the same shall be agreed to by a majority of the members elected to each of the two houses, such proposed amendment or amendments shall be entered on the journals, with the yeas and nays taken thereon, and referred to the legislature next to be chosen, and shall be published for three months previous to the time of making such choice; and, if in the legislature next chosen as aforesaid, such proposed amendment or amendments shall be agreed to by two thirds of all the members elected to each house, then it shall be the duty of the legislature to submit such proposed amendment or amendments to the people, in such manner and at such time as the legislature shall prescribe; and if the people shall approve and ratify such amendment or amendments, by a majority of the electors qualified to vote for members of the legislature voting thereon, such amendment or amendments shall become part of the constitution.

ARTICLE IX.

SEC. 1. This constitution shall be in force from the last day of

December, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two. But all those parts of the same, which relate to the right of suffrage; the division of the state into senate districts: the number of members of the assembly to be elected, in pursuance of this constitution; the apportionment of members of assembly; the elections hereby directed to commence on the first Monday of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two; the continuance of members of the present legislature in office until the first day of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty three; and the prohibition against authorizing lotteries; the prohibition against appropriating the public moneys or property for local or private purposes, or creating, continuing, altering, or renewing any body politic or corporate, without the assent of two thirds of the members elected to each branch of the legislature, shall be in force and take effect from the last day of February next. The members of the present legislature shall, on the first Monday of March next, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation to support the constitution, so far as the same shall then be in force. Sheriffs, clerks of counties, and coroners, shall be elected at the election hereby directed to commence on the first Monday of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two; but they shall not enter on the duties of their office before the first day of January then next following. The commissions of all persons holding civil offices on the last day of December, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two, shall expire on that day; but the officers then in commission, may respectively continue to hold their said offices, until new appointments or elections shall take place under this constitution.

SEC. 2. The existing laws relative to the manner of notifying, holding and conducting elections, making returns, and canvassing votes, shall be in force, and observed in respect to the elections hereby directed to commence on the first Monday of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two, so far as the same are applicable. And the present legislature shall pass such other and further laws as may be requisite for the execution of the provisions of this constitution in respect to elections.

Done in convention, at the capital, in the city of Albany, the tenth day of November, in the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty-one, and of the independence of the United States of America, the forty sixth. In witness thereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

DANIEL D. TOMPKINS, *President.*

JOHN F. BACON,
SAMUEL S. GARDNER, } *Secretaries.*

[The foregoing constitution was ratified by the people at an election held in the several towns and wards of this state, on the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth days of January, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-two.]

AMENDMENTS.

Following amendments to the constitution were proposed by the people in 1825, were referred to the legislature of 1826, agreed to by the members elected to each house of that legislature, submitted to the people, and approved and ratified at an election held on the 1st and 8th days of November, 1826.]

FIRST AMENDMENT.

The people of this state, in their several towns, shall, at their annual elections, be divided by lot into four classes, of each class, and be numbered, one, two, three and four; and the number one shall expire at the end of the first year, of number two at the end of the second year, of number three at the end of the third year, and of number four at the end of the fourth year, in order that one class shall be annually elected: and that so much of the fourth article of the constitution of this state as is inconsistent with this amendment, be abrogated.

SECOND AMENDMENT.

So much of the first section of the second article of the constitution as relates to the qualifications of voters, other than persons of color, being the same, is hereby abolished, and that the following be substituted in lieu thereof:

Every male citizen of the age of twenty-one years, who shall have been a resident of this state one year next preceding any election, and who has last six months a resident of the county where he may offer to vote, shall be entitled to vote in the town or ward where he actually resides, and not elsewhere, for all officers that now are, or hereafter may be created by the people.

THIRD AMENDMENT.

Following amendments, having been previously proposed by the people, were ratified by the people at the annual election in November, 1833.]

The duties on the manufacture of salt, as established by the act of the 10th of April, one thousand eight hundred and seventeen, and the 10th section of the seventh article of the constitution of this state, at any time hereafter be reduced by an act of the legislature of this state, shall not, while the same is appropriated and pledged by the constitution, be reduced below the sum of six cents upon each and every bushel of salt, and the said duties shall remain inviolably appropriated and applied as provided by the said tenth section; and that so much of the 10th section of the seventh article of the constitution of this state as is inconsistent with this amendment, be abrogated.

FOURTH AMENDMENT.

At the end of the tenth section of the fourth article of the said constitution, add the following words: "Except in the city of New-York, which the mayor shall be chosen annually by the electors thereof qualified to vote for the other charter officers of the said city, and at the time of the election of such officers."

FIFTH AMENDMENT.

Mayors of the several cities of this state, may be elected among the male inhabitants entitled to vote for members of the common council of such cities respectively, in such manner as the legislature at law provide; and the legislature may, from time to time, make such provision by law for the election of any one or more of such mayors until such provision shall be made by law, such mayor (except the mayor of the city of New York) shall be appointed in the manner provided by the constitution of this state; and so much of the sentence of article fourth of the constitution of this state, as is inconsistent with this amendment is hereby abrogated.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

stitution framed for the United States of America, by a convention of delegates from the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, at a session begun on September 17, 1787.

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states; and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the state in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within the Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. A census or enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the United States, and within every subsequent ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the state of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations

one; Connecticut five; New York six; New Jersey four; Pennsylvania eight; Delaware one; Maryland six; Virginia ten; North Carolina five; South Carolina five; Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SEC. 3. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year; that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments, the next meeting of the legislature which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

The vice president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore, in the absence of the vice president, or when he shall ex- ceed the office of president of the United States.

The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgment, in cases of impeachment, shall not extend further than the removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SEC. 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the congress may at any time, by law, make or alter regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The congress shall assemble at least once in every year; and the meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law, appoint a different day.

SEC. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members; and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from

ay, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house, on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered in the journal.

Neither house, during the session of congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SEC. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to or returning from the same: and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SEC. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose, or concur with, amendments, on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States: if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two thirds of the house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But, in all such cases, the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution or vote, to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the president of the United States, and when the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being dis-

approved by him, shall be passed by two thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Sec. 8. Congress shall have power—

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States:

To borrow money on the credit of the United States:

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes:

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States:

To coin money; to regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin; and fix the standard of weights and measures:

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States:

To establish post offices and post roads:

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries:

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court:

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations:

To declare war; grant letters of marque and reprisal; and make rules concerning captures on land and water:

To raise and support armies: but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years:

To provide and maintain a navy:

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions:

To provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States; reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by congress:

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock yards, and other needful buildings: And,

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sac. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight : but no tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another ; nor shall vessels bound to or from one state be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law : and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States ; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Sec. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation ; grant letters of marque and reprisal ; coin money ; emit bills of credit ; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts ; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts ; or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws : and the nett produce of all duties and imposts laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States ; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the congress. No state shall, without the consent of congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another state, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

Section 1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows :

Each state shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the congress ; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the state with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate. The president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the house of representatives shall immediately by ballot choose one of them for president; and if no person have a majority, then, from the five highest on the list, the said house shall, in three ballots, choose the president. But, in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the president, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors, shall be vice president. But if there should remain two or more with equal votes, the senate shall choose from them, by ballot, the vice president.

(By the 12th article of amendment, the above clause has been repealed.)

The congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person, except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president: neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty five years, and been seven years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of that office, the same shall devolve on the vice president, and the congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the president and vice president, declaring what officer shall act as president; and such officer shall act accordingly, until the president be removed, or a president shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during that period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive, during that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any state.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States; and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

Sec. 2. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur: and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Sec. 3. He shall from time to time, give to the congress information of the state of the union; and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient. He may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them; and, in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper. He shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers. He shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed; and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Sec. 4. The president, vice president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

Section 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior; and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Sec. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party, to controversies between two or more states, between a state and citizens of another state, between citizens of different states, between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states, and between a state, or the citizens thereof and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the congress may by law have directed.

SEC. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SECTION 1. Full faith and credit shall be given, in each state, to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SEC. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein be discharged from such service or labor; but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SEC. 3. New states may be admitted by the congress into this union, but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state, nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the congress.

The congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SEC. 4. The United States shall guaranty to every state in this union, a republican form of government; and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

The congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or on the application

of the legislatures of two thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments; which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the congress: Provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made or which shall be made under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.

The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislature, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states shall be bound, by oath or affirmation, to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine states shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America, the twelfth. In witness whereof we have subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Delegate from Virginia.

New Hampshire. John Langdon, Nicholas Gilman.
Massachusetts. Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King.
Connecticut. Wm. Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman.
New York. Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey. William Livingston, William Paterson, David Brandy Jonathan Dayton.

Pennsylvania. Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, Thomas Finckleson, James Wilson, Thomas Mifflin, George Clymer, Jared Ingham, Gouverneur Morris.

Delaware. George Read, Gunning Bedford Jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom.

Maryland. James M'Henry, Daniel of St. Tho. Jenifer, David Carroll.

Virginia. John Blair, James Madison, Jr.

North Carolina. William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson.

South Carolina. John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney, Pierce Butler, Chas. Cotesworth Pinckney.

Georgia. William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

Attest, WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS.

ARTICLE I. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. II. A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ART. III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrant shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital or other infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject, for the same offence, to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be witness against himself

nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law ; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ART. VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law ; and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation ; to be confronted with the witnesses against him ; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor ; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. VII. In suits at law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved ; and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. IX. The enumeration in the constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ART. XI. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law, or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ART. XII. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote, by ballot, for president and vice president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves : they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as vice president ; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice president, and of the number of votes for each ; which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate : the president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted ; the person having the greatest number of votes for president shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed ; and if no person have such majority, then, from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the votes shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote : a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the president.

The person having the greatest number of votes as vice president, shall be the vice president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then, from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice president: a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice president of the United States.

WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

SEPTEMBER 17, 1796.

Friends and Fellow Citizens:

The period for a new election of a citizen to administer the executive government of the United States being not far distant, and the time actually arrived when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprize you of the resolution I have formed, to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom the choice is to be made.

I beg you at the same time to do me the justice to be assured, that this resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that in withdrawing the tender of service, which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest; no deficiency of grateful respect for your past kindness; but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of and continuance hitherto in the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been an uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty, and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea. I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country you will not disapprove of my determination to retire.

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The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous task explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this task I only say that I have, with good intentions, contributed towards the creation and administration of the government the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the case of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to distrust of myself; and, every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more, that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as will be welcome. Satisfied that if any circumstances have given value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe, that while choice and prudence invite me to quit the public scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment which is to terminate the course of my political life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my country for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more to my steadfast confidence with which it has supported me; and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, it always be remembered to your praise, and as instructive to our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, in every direction, were liable to mislead—amidst appearances often dubious—vicissitudes of fortunes often discouraging—in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the use of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential support of the efforts, and a guarantee of the plans, by which they were conducted. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave as a strong incitement to unceasing wishes, that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence—that your union and concord, that your affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution which has been the work of your hands may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete, by so careful a preservation, and a prudent use of this blessing, as will acquire to them the glory of maintaining it to the applause, the affection, and adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger, not that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like present, to offer to you my solemn contemplation, and to recommend to your frequent review the sentiments, which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all important to the permanent felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warning of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias

els. Nor can I forget, as an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of our hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government, which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so ; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence ; the support of your tranquillity at home ; your peace abroad ; of your safety ; of your prosperity, of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee, that from different causes and from different quarters, much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth ; as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed ; it is of infinite moment, that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness ; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immoveable attachment to it ; accustoming yourselves to think and to speak of it as a palladium of your political safety and prosperity ; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety ; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned ; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice, of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of AMERICAN, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference you have the same religion, manners, habits and political principle. You have, in a common cause, fought, and triumphed together ; the independence and liberty you possess, are the work of joint councils, and joint efforts—of common dangers, sufferings, and success.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest. Here every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The *north*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *south*, protected by the equal laws of a common government finds in the productions of the latter, great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise, and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *south*, in the same intercourse, benefitting by the same agency of the *north*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *north*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated—and while it contributes in different ways to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength, to which itself is unequally adapted.

The *east*, in like intercourse with the *west*, already finds in the progressive improvement of interior communications by land and water, and will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad, or manufactures at home. The *west* derives from the *east* supplies requisite to its growth and comfort—and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the secure enjoyment of indispensable outlets for its own productions, to the weight, influence, and the future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the Union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest as one nation. Any other tenure by which the *west* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connexion with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While therefore every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts, greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations; and what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves, which so frequently afflict neighboring countries, not tied together by the same government, which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce; but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues, would stimulate and embitter. Hence likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments, which under any form of government are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty. In this sense it is, that your union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the union as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue of the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes which may disturb our union, it occurs as matter of serious concern that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties, by geographical discriminations—*Northern* and *Southern*; *Atlantic* and *Western*; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence within particular districts, is to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings which spring from these misrepresentations; they tend to ren-

der alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head. They have seen in the negotiation, by the executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the senate of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a policy in the general government, and in the Atlantic states, unfriendly their interests in regard to the Mississippi. They have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties, that with Great Britain, and that with Spain, which secure to them every thing they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, towards confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the union by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts can be an adequate substitute; they must inevitably experience the inflections and interruptions which alliances at all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay, by the adoption of a constitution of government, better calculated than your former for an intimate union, and for the efficacious management of your common concern. This government, the offspring of your own choice, uninfluenced and unawed; adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation; completely free in its principles; in the distribution of its powers uniting security with energy, and containing within itself provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political system is the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government. But the constitution which at any time exists, until changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government, presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberations and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction; to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation, the will of party, often a small, but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans, digested by common councils, and modified by mutual interests.

However combinations or associations of the above description may

now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course and things, to become potent engines by which cunning, ambitious unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people to usurp for themselves the reins of government ; destroying afterwards the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

Towards the preservation of your government and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite not only that you steadily countenance irregular opposition to its acknowledged authority, but that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles ever specious the pretext. One method of assault may be to attack the forms of the constitution alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that to sever the habits are at least as necessary to fix the true character of government as of other human institutions ; that experience is the surest standard which to test the real tendency of the existing constitutions of a country ; that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypothesis or opinion, exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypotheses and opinion ; and remember especially, that from the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as this, government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty, is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of the society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to maintain all in due order and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you the dangers of parties in the establishment of a particular reference to the founding of them upon geographical divisions of nations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner, against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally.

This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. It exists under various shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed ; but in those of the popular form it is seen in its greatest rankness and is truly their worst enemy.

The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge, natural to party dissension, which in different climates and countries has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a rival despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries which result, gradually fix the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual ; and, sooner or later, the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation on the ruins of the public liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind, (which even the less ought not to be entirely out of sight,) the common and constant

mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it.

It serves always to distract the public councils, and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another; foment occasional riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which finds a facilitated access to the government itself, through the channels of party passion. Thus the policy and will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This, within certain limits, is probably true; and in governments of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From the natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose; and there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be, by force of public opinion to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

It is important, likewise, that the habits of thinking, in a free country, should inspire caution in those intrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres; avoiding, in the exercise of the powers of one department, to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power, and proneness to abuse it, which predominate in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of the public weal against invasions of the other, has been evinced by experiments, ancient and modern; some of them in our country, and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers, be, in any particular, wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way in which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation, for though this, in one instance, may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance, in permanent evil, any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion, and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness—these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and cherish them. A volume could not trace all their con-

nexion with private and public felicity. Let it simply be asked, will the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths, which are the instruments of investigation in the courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality will prevail in exclusion of religious principles.

It is substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring to popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to the public can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric?

Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of the government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it, is to use it as sparingly as possible, avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remember also, that timely disbursements to prepare for danger, frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burden which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these measures belongs to your representatives; but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential that you should particularly bear in mind, that towards the payment of debts there must be revenue; that to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects, (which is always a source of difficulties,) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may at any time dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all: religion and morality enjoin this conduct. Can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be well if, of a free, enlightened, and at no distant period, a great nation, to the whole of mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt but that in the course of time and things the fruits of such a plan would repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be that Providence has connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! it is rendered impossible by its vices!

execution of such a plan nothing is more essential than that antipathies, against particular nations, and partial attachment for others, should be excluded; and that in the place of just and amicable feelings towards all should be cultivated. The high indulgence towards another an habitual hatred, or an habitual animosity, in some degree, a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its antipathy, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and station. Antipathy in one nation against another, disposes each more ready to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, to be haughty and intractable when accidental or trifling occasions occur.

Frequent collisions, obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests, are often prompted by ill will and resentment, sometimes impels to government, contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts partiality what reason would reject; at other times it makes the passions of the nation subservient to the projects of hostility, instigated by ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The freedom, sometimes, perhaps, the liberty of nations has been the

consequence, a passionate attachment of one nation for another productive of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the influence of an imaginary common interest in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the nation into a participation in the quarrels and the wars of the latter without adequate inducements or justification. It leads, also, to concessions to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which are apt to injure the nation making the concessions, by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained, and by exciting jealousy, and a disposition to retaliate in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld; and it gives to ambitious, corrupt, or deluded citizens (who devote themselves to the favorite nation,) facility to betray or sacrifice the interests of their own country without odium, sometimes without popularity; gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of duty to a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable regard to the public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, and infatuation.

Exposure to foreign influence, in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent

How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic opinions, to practice the art of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to corrupt or awe the public councils! Such an attachment of a small or weak nation towards a great and powerful nation, dooms the former to be the perpetual victim of the latter. Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence, (I repeat it, ye you to believe me, fellow citizens,) the jealousy of a free people must be constantly awake, since history and experience prove that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of republican government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial, else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a

defence against it. Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike for another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. Real patriots who may resist the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become suspected and odious; while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people to surrender their interests.

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connexion as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. Hence, she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitude of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation, invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humor or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world: so far I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But in my opinion, it is unnecessary, and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony, and a liberal intercourse with all nations, are recommended by policy, humanity, and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the stream of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing, with powers so disposed in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, and to enable the government to support them, conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and natural opinion will permit, but temporary,

and liable to be from time to time, abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view that it is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another; that it must pay with a portion of its independence for whatever it may accept under that character; that by such acceptance, it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not giving more. There can be no greater error than to expect or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. It is an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish—that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations. But if I may even flatter myself that they may be productive of some partial benefit, some occasional good; that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit; to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigue; to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism; this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare by which they have been dictated.

How far in the discharge of my official duties I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records and other evidences of my conduct must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my Proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your representatives in both houses of Congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me; uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.

After deliberate examination, with the aids of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take, a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it with moderation, perseverance and firmness.

The considerations which respect the right to hold this conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe, that according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all.

The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without any thing more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose on every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity towards other nations.

The inducements of interest for observing that conduct, will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been to endeavour to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress, without interrup-

tion, to that degree of strength and constancy, which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortune.

Though in reviewing the incidents of my administration, I am unconscious of intentional error ; I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence ; and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service, with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love towards it, which is so natural to a man who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations ; I anticipate, with pleasing expectation, that retreat, in which I promise myself to realize, without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking, in the midst of my fellow citizens, the benign influence of good laws, under a free government ; the ever favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors and dangers.

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NOTE.

An act passed May 10, 1845, provides that the electors of a town may determine, at their annual town meeting, whether they will choose one or two overseers of the Poor, and whether they will choose three Commissioners of Highways; and the number determined shall be chosen; if three, one to serve one year, another the second year, and the third three years, so that, after the first year, one shall be chosen annually for three years. The three Assessors are to be classified in the same manner as Commissioners of Highways, so that one may be annually elected for three years.

By the same act, Courts of Special Sessions are to be held by a single magistrate; and the prisoner may choose whether he will be tried with or without a jury. If he chooses to be tried by a single magistrate, he is not to be first examined.

The accounts of members of Boards of Town Auditor hereafter to be audited by the Board of Supervisors.

The town Collector attends at some central place in the town one day in a week for thirty days, to receive taxes from such persons as please to call and pay them. On taxes thus paid, the Collector is allowed but one cent fees on every dollar, and one cent on the amount of tax less than one dollar. Taxes remaining unpaid at the end of thirty days, to be collected for the fees heretofore allowed.

An act of May 14, 1845, provides that the electors of the rural towns and cities, except New York, shall meet on the day next preceding the first Monday of May, and determine by ballot, whether licenses may or may not be granted to sell spirituous liquors. If a majority of the votes are for "no license," the Board of Excise shall not grant licenses, until the vote be reversed by a second election.









